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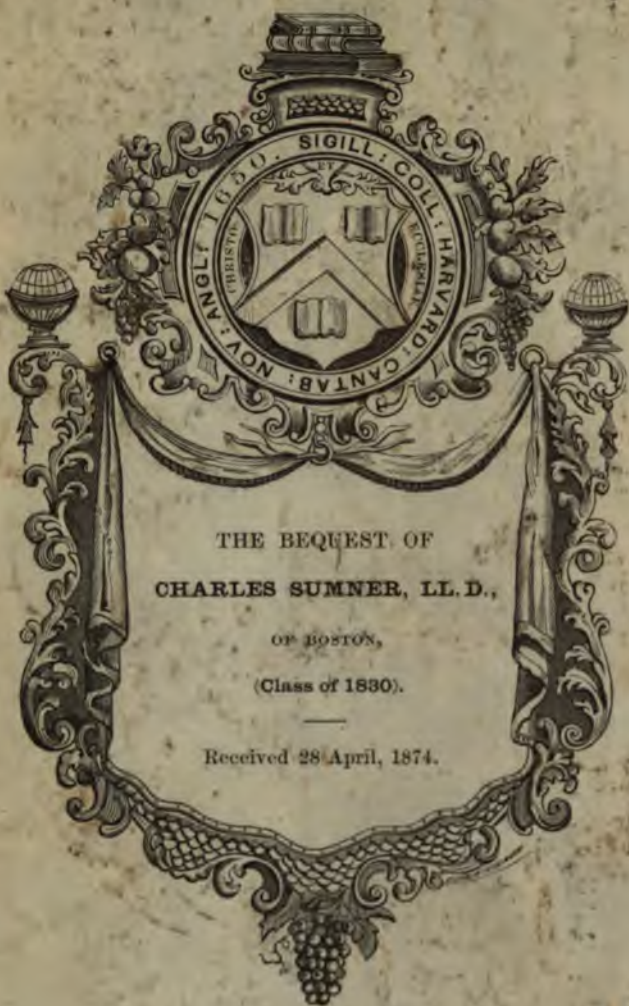
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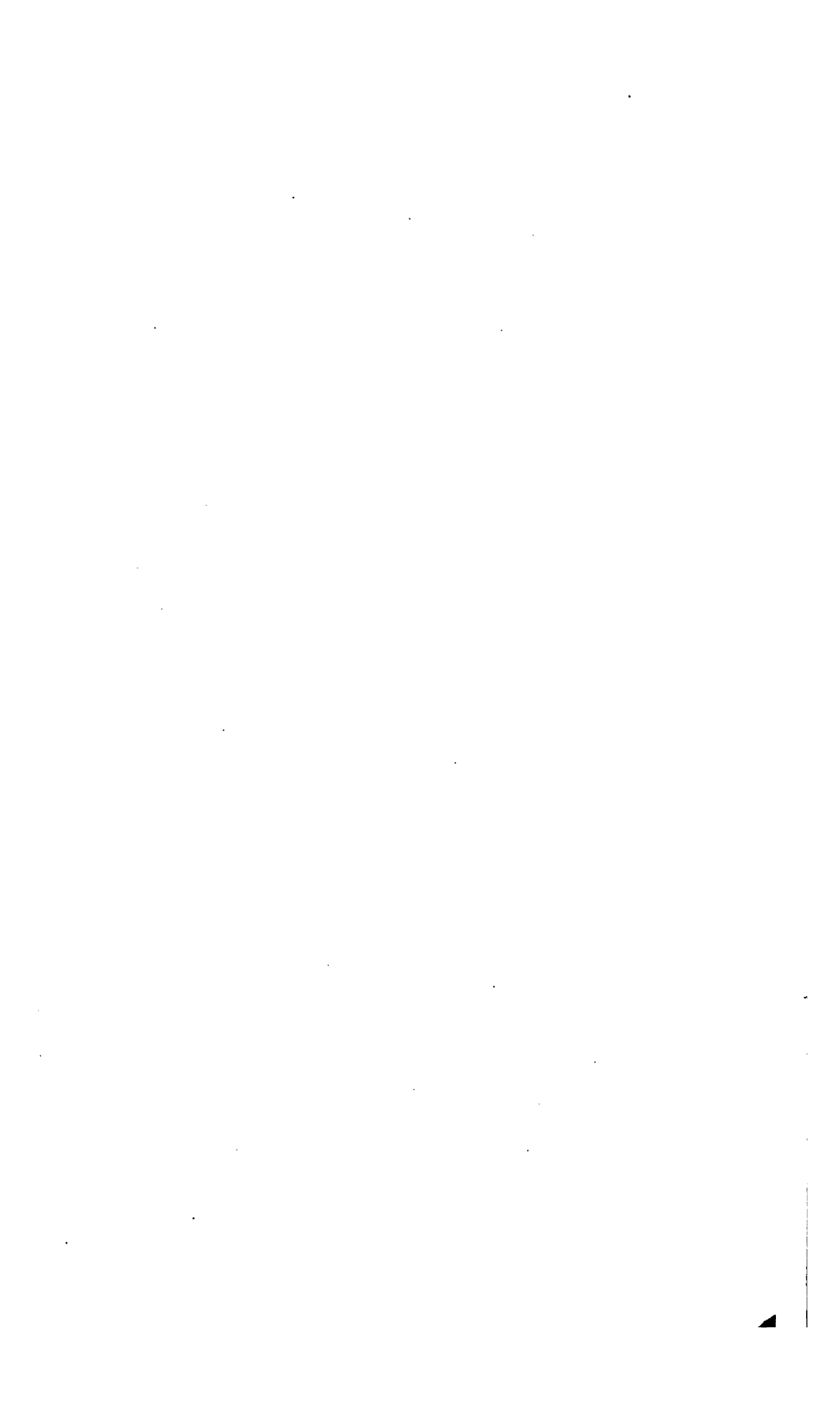
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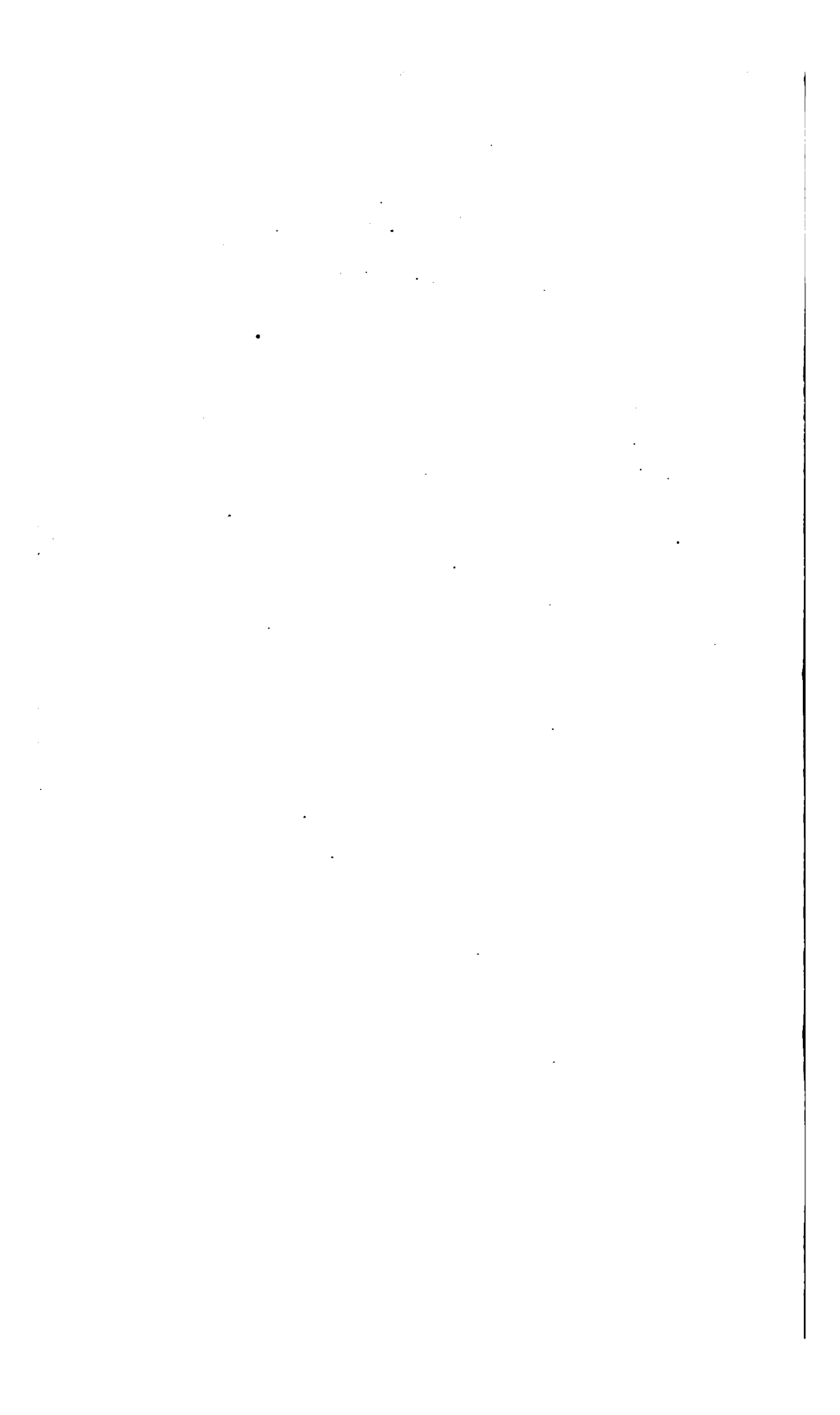














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AUSTRIAN EMPIRE;

HER

POPULATION AND RESOURCES.

*By Thomas Charles S. 1842*

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1842.

1874, April 28.  
Nur 9001.1 Bequest of  
Hon. Chas. Sumner,  
of Boston.  
(H. U. 1830.)

1. *Statistische Uebersicht der Bevölkerung der Oesterreichschen Monarchie.* VON SIEGFRIED BECHER, Doctor der Rechte.
2. *Statistik des Oesterreichschen Kaiserstaates.* Von JOHANN SPRINGER, Professor an der Universität zu Wien.

THE advantages which never fail to result from the publication of authentic statements of the resources of a country and of their application, appear of late years to have been appreciated by the Austrian government. Statistical surveys of considerable value have from time to time been communicated to authors, and even to foreign travellers, with unusual liberality by a government which had the reputation of seeking to wrap its proceedings in secrecy. But the step of publishing at full the details prepared and long preserved in the statistical bureau at Vienna in an authorized shape was scarcely expected by those who have not followed the recent proceedings at that capital, and who consequently are not aware that the accession of the present emperor to the throne marks an epoch in the history of the Austrian empire, of good omen for the country and for the civilized world.

The first fruits of the advance made by the government in the career which has thus been opened of a sound domestic policy, by courting the salutary influence of public opinion upon the institutions of the state and on those to whose guidance they are entrusted, are given in the works named at the head of these pages, the details furnished by which we have the means of knowing are strictly authentic. In both works it is impossible not to recognise a remnant of that timidity which the severe rules of the censorship impresses upon all writers on domestic subjects in Austria; but as there is no doubt that the government possesses the most extensive and accurate information on every point which M. Springer has left in doubt, it may be expected that future publications, similar to that of M. Becher, will clear them up.

Statistical returns have been regularly required from the

provinces of Austria by the government as long as since the middle of the last century. A census has regularly been taken, in order to form an estimate of the number of troops disposable, in all the provinces but Hungary and Transylvania. These arrangements were improved and rendered stricter by the Emperor Joseph II. But it was only as late as 1828 that a regular statistical bureau was instituted by the late Emperor Francis, with the charge to furnish him annually with an accurate survey of the population, state of agriculture, schools, clergy, and the financial resources of the empire. The first survey was prepared for 1829, with the results of twenty years preceding; and the bureau has completed a similar statement for every year since, down to the close of 1839.

To attempt to bestow due commendation on the statesmen who have adopted this truly grand measure of holding so faithful a mirror of the state up to the regards of their countrymen, would be foreign to our province as strangers and reviewers.

As Englishmen, however, who set a high value upon the natural alliance with Austria which the bond of mutual interests has so long cemented, we rejoice infinitely at seeing that fine empire, by the improvement of her domestic policy, secure the foundations of her power, and by one sole act, so consonant to the wants and wishes of the age, give a pledge that she is cultivating the means of demanding the attachment of the subject and the respect of neighbours and rivals.

M. Becher, a member of the statistical board, has received the honourable commission to publish successively a number of the most important results of the labours of that board. In every point of view these details are a most acceptable addition to our knowledge of human nature; but they must possess a peculiar interest from the condition of the inhabitants of so large a portion of eastern Europe, and respecting which so little has been written that could lay claim to authenticity, — a condition which differs so much in the different provinces from each other, and in all from the state of social life in the west, that the possibility of the continuance of such inequality forms a problem of the most difficult nature. We trust, by the collation of the facts relating to the population of the Austrian provinces, which the work named at the head of our



article contains, with other equally authentic information derived from our own peculiar sources, to be able to throw some light upon a subject both of scientific and of political importance.

The Austrian empire falls into two grand political divisions. The twelve German, Slavonian and Italian provinces are governed nearly according to the same principles. The emperor is absolute lord and master in these; and although the form of approving the sums demanded of them is still annually kept up by the '*Landstände*,' or estates of each province, yet the sanction of these provincial representatives is never required to any other law, nor would their protest, even in this point, be of the slightest avail. Our readers do not require to be reminded that this state of things is supported by a standing army of, at the lowest figure, 470,000 men, and by the exertions of 100,000 civil servants, who count the majority of the educated classes in their ranks. If the mode of representation by estates or classes of the inhabitants (magnates, prelates, knights, burghers), in preference to the representation according to territorial divisions, which is common in the west of Europe, points to those ancient times when a caste-like association and classification was indispensable, to lend force enough to the elements of civilization to resist the influence of barbarism; the circumstance that a government, whose financial resources are not at present extraordinary, can find half a million of men not unwilling to serve with docility for the pay and immunities which it can give, would seem to indicate a low value of labour and a reduced standard for the necessities of life, which in the west of Europe belongs to a period of equal antiquity with the former.

In juxtaposition with these thirteen provinces, and almost surrounded by them, lie Hungary and Transylvania, containing one-third of the population of the empire, and presenting a different picture. The representation of the people preserves, in these provinces, the mixed character which it bears in England. The upper house, or chamber of magnates, is composed of the peers and prelates, but the lower house is formed of territorial representatives, for the limitation in the qualification for representing counties to the noblesse or lesser nobility is no restriction in a country where this title is so

widely spread and so easily obtained. The representation is in these countries no empty form that has outlived its destination, and rejected all regeneration from modern systems. Like our Saxon ancestors, the Hungarian comes armed to the place to which his sovereign summons him, and although the right of voting is deferred to the actual representatives, yet no man that wears a sword allows that he can be excluded from intermixing with the deputies, or from joining in the public expressions of assent or dissent which follow the remarkable speeches. It is his duty as well as his desire to give heed to the manner in which the deputy acts up to the instructions with which his constituents have furnished him, and keeps the promises made upon the hustings. A doubt raised at home as to his sincerity will often suffice to occasion his recal. On occasions of regal state, the king appears surrounded by his barons on horseback, and these assemblies again remind one of the Champs de Mai of the Franks. But the discrimination which caused the Hungarians to retain the customs of these great European tribes, each in the sphere in which it was most serviceable, cannot be attributed to blind chance alone. Some credit is due to the nation for that selection which has preserved its constitutional forms amidst the decay of those of its neighbours; and we may also recollect that at an early period the Hungarians were the only people of Europe who refused to join in the absurdities of the Crusades.

On this difference in the political institutions of these two portions of the empire, depends, in the first place, the knowledge of the domestic details of parishes and families which the government is able to obtain. In the conscribed provinces as they are called, from the exact enumeration made in them of the population for the military conscription, these details are perhaps more extended and more accurate than the returns of any other country. The control of a numerous body of civilians over a scattered population, for which they perform all the functions of law and administration, concentrating the legal, county and parochial jurisdiction, is so complete, that on the main points, beyond an occasional slip of the pen, it is not possible to err. The parish clergy are moreover responsible for the performance of any ceremony without the prescribed notification to the authorities, as are also physicians, midwives,

etc. Nor are the controls of a fiscal nature over property less frequent and complete. The grand survey of the empire by the engineers is complete in its outline although not in the details; but so minute is the estimate of the extent of the property of each individual, and of its produce, that it may be prophesied, when the map is finished, there will be but little difference found between the measured and the estimated statement. The returns of the occupations of the inhabitants is required to be no less exact in its details, as forming the basis on which the industry-tax is levied. It may be observed that every occupation of an industrial description is carried on by special license from the crown; nor can any change take place, or any addition to a man's trading sphere be attempted, without the consent of the authorities.

Respecting Hungary and Transylvania, no such accurate information has been gathered as was furnished by the other provinces. The ill-timed attempts of Joseph II. to introduce reforms into those countries in an unconstitutional manner, without the consent of the diets, awakened a suspicion against all innovations and inquiries instituted by the government, which has lost but little of its force in consequence of the recent unhesitating acknowledgment of the national form of government in Hungary by the Austrians. If a conciliating policy be adhered to, which there is now every reason to expect, this jealousy will doubtless subside; but at present all the knowledge which the government possesses regarding Hungary dates from enumerations and estimates made under the Emperor Joseph II. The first took place in 1786, and, as its inaccuracy was evident, a second was instituted in 1787. Singularly enough, the difference between these two estimates has been assumed as showing the increase in the population within the year, and has furnished a standard for calculating the state of the population ever since. There exist no means of accurately determining how far these calculations are now erroneous, but writers on the statistics of Hungary who have taken pains to obtain the best information, differ by several millions from the government estimate. Thus the estimate of Fenyés rates the population of Hungary at between 8,000,000 and 9,000,000, while the tables assign 11,727,439 as the amount for 1837.



Dr. Becher's work gives the population of the empire down to the commencement of 1840, and shows it to amount to 36,950,401 souls. From what we have stated respecting Hungary, it will not appear improbable that the estimate for that portion of the empire is considerably over-rated, perhaps by a million and a half. The population may however, with tolerable certainty, be assumed at 35,500,000, or about the population of France. This number is more than double the population of Prussia, which in 1840 was found to be 14,900,000, and considerably exceeds the population of the whole German Confederation, without the Austrian contingent, which was estimated in 1837 at 27,500,000.

This number of inhabitants is most unequally distributed over the surface of 12,150 square German miles, but gives an average of 133 inhabitants per English square mile. The average of Prussia does not exceed 107 per English mile, that of the Confederation, without Austria, is 185, and that of France was, in 1831, 170.

An enumeration of the population in thirteen provinces takes place with sufficient accuracy every three years, and the rate of increase in the twenty years between 1818 and 1837, notwithstanding the ravages of the cholera, was found to amount to 163,922 per annum, on a population of from 18,000,000 to 21,000,000, or about  $\frac{2}{10}$  per cent. per annum. The annual increase between 1818 and 1830 was found to be  $1\frac{1}{10}$  per cent. per annum. In a healthy year, such as 1837, it now exceeds  $1\frac{2}{10}$  per cent.

But a loose calculation of the distribution of the population, according to the superficies of the empire at large, or even of every province, gives a vague and often an erroneous idea of the physical and moral powers of these countries, and this estimate is all which M. Becher's work affords the means of making. We rejoice that we are able, from our own resources, to supply the deficiency, and shall proceed to describe each province separately.

It must previously be observed, that the provinces may be classed in four distinct groups, according to the nationality which predominates in each. The *Slavonian* provinces are, Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Galicia, Illyria, Dalmatia, and the

military frontier. The greatest, but not the finest, part of Hungary is likewise inhabited by Slavonians, as are likewise the two finest circles of Styria. The total number of Slavonic inhabitants in the empire may be estimated at sixteen millions. They form two compact masses, one to the north and another to the south of the Danube; the northern reckoning perhaps twelve millions, the southern four millions, of souls. They are divided from each other by the intervention of the Germanic provinces, Upper and Lower Austria, and by the two plains of Hungary, which are the chief seats of the Magyars, or Hungarians proper.

The northern Slavonic group contains three nationalities (for the term *nation* cannot be applied, and *tribe* more properly describes their subdivisions). The *Czechy*, in Bohemia, Moravia, the north-western counties of Hungary and part of Silesia, may be classed under three tribes—the Czechs, or Bohemians, the Moravians and the Slovacks. In the earlier ages of Europe, these tribes, whether united or divided, formed an imposing force. The dukes and kings of Bohemia and the princes of Moravia, while they stood alone, did homage to the German emperor, but were the most powerful of his vassals, with the internal concerns of whose states he never pretended to interfere. When, in the thirteenth century, Ottocar Przemysl, the leading character of his time, united Moravia with Bohemia, the extension of his rule from the Oder to the Alps was a matter of easy accomplishment, and the Germans were in doubt whether to place themselves under his protection by electing him to their vacant throne, or to make a last effort for their nationality. The last view prevailed, and, with the aid of the Hungarians, who likewise feared the great Slavonian, proved successful. The victory of Rudolph of Hapsburg over Ottocar in the Marchfeld, in 1278, rescued for the Germans the most valuable jewel of a nation,—the right to keep the path which habit has made easy in the march of civilization, to use their own language, and to consult their own inclinations and prejudices. Thus the Germans were freed from the imminent danger of becoming ultimately the victims to the Slavonians, which the Slavonians have since proved of their German task-masters.

The rich possessions of the kings of Bohemia did not,

however, fall into the hands of the archdukes of Austria immediately on the extinction of the direct line of the native sovereigns in 1305. The Emperor Henry VII., of the house of Luxemburg, conferred the vacant fief on his son John, and laid, by this donation, the foundation of the future greatness of his family. Under Charles IV. Prague became the capital of Germany and of civilization. He had an easy task in reconciling the Bohemians with the polish of the West, because at that period the substantial benefits of civilization followed the outward display that it induced, and commerce, the arts and learning kept equal pace with the growth of regal and aristocratic pomp.

The sovereignty of Austria followed by treaty on the extinction of the house of Luxemburg, by the death of Louis in the Marshes of Mohacs, in 1526; but the right thus obtained was converted into the direful supremacy of conquest by the sad results of the war of thirty years, and of the sway which the Jesuits, by means of those deplorable events, obtained in the councils of the empire. At the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, the population of Bohemia is said not to have much exceeded 200,000, and of the splendour and wealth of Prague little remained but the deserted buildings, which still testify to its early importance. The name of Bohemian became synonymous with that of Protestant, Hussite, and rebel, and the rule not only of a foreign potentate, but of foreign language, manners and cultivation, was enforced by the iron hand of despotism.

Still, amidst all these disadvantages, with others arising from the constant wars within the empire, the wounds gradually healed which had been so deeply struck, the population increased, and Bohemia now counts four millions and a half of industrious and enlightened citizens. The cultivation of the vernacular language commenced under the liberal auspices of Joseph II., and the literature, which has begun to assume a place beside that of Poland, is received in Moravia, Silesia and the north of Hungary with feelings of filial attachment.

Into the mournful history of Poland we need not here enter. It is well known that on more than one occasion the Austrian court was not unwilling to restore the share of that



unhappy kingdom, which has, under every shade of suffering and under every discouraging circumstance, so tenaciously clung to the idea of nationality. By such a cession Austria would have withdrawn within its natural boundaries of the Riesen Mountains and the Carpathians, and would only have lost a province which is now exposed to every incursion its northern neighbour, in times of irritation, may project; while it would be impossible to check the impulse of its inhabitants to unite with their brethren on the Vistula, when Providence shall bring about their day of retribution. Austria has not a single fortress on the northern side of the Carpathians.

The inhabitants of Galicia subdivide into two nationalities, the Mazurs, or Poles proper, one of the finest races of men in the world; and the Ruthenes, or Little Russians, who extend through Podolia, Wolhynia and the Ukraine into Russia, of which empire their territory forms perhaps the most valuable portion. The river San, in Galicia, marks the boundary between these tribes. The Mazurs live on the western, the Ruthenes on the eastern side of that river, whence the latter extend into the north-eastern counties of Hungary, into Moldavia and the adjoining provinces of Poland now subject to Russia.

To the southward of the Danube we meet the first Slavonians, the descendants of the ancient Illyrians, in the eastern circles of Styria, whence we can follow them through Carinthia and Carniola into Friaul on the one side, and into Croatia and Dalmatia on the other. In the military frontier these meet with the Servians, who have wandered from the Turkish side of the Save and the Danube, where, under the names of Bosnians, Servians and Bulgarians, both the Christian and Mahomedan inhabitants are of the same race. If Napoleon had consolidated his ephemeral kingdom of Illyria by means of free institutions suited to the demands of the age, it would have been very difficult, if not impossible, to overturn it. Four tribes form the southern Austrian Slavonic group, the Illyrians, Croatians, Servians and Dalmatians.

The decided superiority in numbers of the Slavonic population has made us name this portion first; but Austria still claims supremacy as a German power. The Germans

inhabit exclusively only the provinces of Upper and Lower Austria, Tyrol and one-half of Styria, amounting together to three millions of souls. The number scattered through the other provinces is said to amount to three millions and a half.

The Italians in the kingdom of Lombardy and Venice, in south Tyrol and in the southern parts of Illyria, amount to 4,600,000. The writer we have before quoted counts the Wallachians, in Hungary and Transylvania, whose numbers are estimated at 1,560,000, with the Italians, as they descend from the ancient Roman settlers on the Lower Danube, and call themselves Romuni; but the connexion has long been broken off by the influence of time and distance.

The interesting and enterprising nation of the Magyars occupies the finest seats in the empire, and perhaps in Europe. In number not exceeding 5,500,000, they have for centuries asserted their supremacy over a mixed population of Slavonians and Wallachians, double their number, while they have defended the palladium of free institutions against the open attacks of avowed enemies, and the more insidious attempts of pretended friends and reformers.

The task of keeping so many and such various provinces in peaceful submission to one head is not of easy execution, nor could it probably have been accomplished without an union of circumstances of a rare kind. Undisturbed peace for a quarter of a century, the occurrence of none of those striking events which materially affect the relative positions of kingdoms or of provinces, the care of a firm and experienced statesman, together with a domestic policy which contains many things remarkably well suited to the exigencies of the times, were all requisite to secure the very existence of a body politic of so heterogeneous a nature.

The successful rivalry of Rudolph of Hapsburg with the King of Bohemia enabled him to endow his family with the marches of Austria and the mountain districts of Styria, Carinthia and Tyrol. The ambition of his successors was crowned, as we have seen, after the lapse of three centuries, with the succession to Bohemia and Hungary, which, with the sway over the wealthy kingdoms of Spain and the Netherlands, ensured the inheritance of the imperial dignity in that family. Yet, until the close of the thirty years' war, in which

the theory of standing armies in the pay of the crown was fully developed, and after which this scourge of mankind was for the first time submitted to by the nations of Europe, the emperor was far from being absolute monarch in what were then called his household states. Each province was represented by the peers, prelates and knights. Citizens were afterwards admitted, and in Tyrol the small free- and copy-holders (*Bauern*) took part in deliberations which were no mockery of constitutional forms. The sums voted, even in the most pressing exigencies, and the supplies of troops were carefully weighed, according to the powers of the provinces. The old house of the Estates, which has but just been taken down, at Vienna, bore a remarkable testimony to the share in public life taken some centuries back by the nobles of Austria. In the stirring times of the Reformation the Protestant and Catholic parties were so nicely balanced, that it was thought fit, for the preservation of the public peace, to construct a second staircase leading to the chamber of meeting. The Catholic party used to mount one on the left side of the building as the court was entered, the Protestants appropriated that on the right side to their use. Another proof is recorded in the privileges of a cuirassier regiment of the Austrian army, which has the exclusive right to pass through the imperial palace with its band playing. When the Emperor Ferdinand was besieged in his palace by his Austrian nobles, who insisted upon the recognition of a church reform, this regiment arrived in time to prevent his yielding, and to deprive those countries of the prize so nearly won.

The system of representation by Estates founds the share of the nobles and prelates in the legislative power on the possession of lands and the tenure of office. A body thus constituted is independent of the crown, which may refuse to summon it, but cannot deprive it of its rights that do not depend upon the royal writs. Nor can the sovereign, on emergencies in which he would willingly act without their co-operation, prevent their meeting without his summons, and annulling his acts as illegal. This form of representation still exists in each of the twelve conscribed provinces of Austria, but the apathy of the higher classes has allowed an undisputed right to degenerate into a pitiful claim for suf-

ference, while the confidence of the middle and lower classes of the community in their own power has not as yet emboldened them to demand the right of choosing fitter representatives of the nation. By this want of co-operation between the governing and the governed, the public institutions and laws are deprived of that elasticity which would take from them much of the oppressive sameness which they now bear. It must be evident that laws and regulations which may be useful in Dalmatia or in Galicia, ought to be considerably modified in their application to the other provinces which have made more progress. Of the present state of the government it may be said that it is admirably calculated to draw out and raise about one-third of the empire, while it retards the improvement of the other two-thirds, by withholding all means of progress from them. In the same manner the low and rude necessities of life are everywhere provided for with unusual attention. Roads are constructed, markets opened and controlled, towns fortified, police regulations enforced, and every local advantage, consistent with a large standing army quartered for the most part on the inhabitants, is afforded to smoothen the flow of domestic life in a narrow and strictly prescribed circle. Beyond this pale everything is notoriously deficient. The fiscal regulations operate disadvantageously upon trade and manufactures; the censorship deprives an empire of vast extent of the salutary influence of public opinion. The public seminaries are restrained by political, and what are called religious, considerations, from lending the proper aid to form the minds even of those who, from their birth and station, are destined to the widest fields of action in public life. The police regulations prevent a free intercourse between the provinces of the same empire. They interfere likewise with the course of even-handed justice, which suffers besides from the screen under which it is sheltered from the public view, and from the deficiency in learning which the state of the schools and universities occasions. The effects of all these causes can be traced distinctly in the condition of every province of this fine empire; and the candour of the government in thus giving publicity to the state of the population, which is a challenge for all to lend their aid in seeking what really benefits and what depresses the country,

will not fail to be rewarded by the stimulated exertions of the enlightened portion of the inhabitants.

But the arrangement of the administrative offices under government not only excludes the mass of the people from all active participation in political and judicial matters, the parochial arrangements are likewise withdrawn from their control and co-operation. Clergymens', schoolmasters' and other offices are filled by the appointment of government or of the patron of the manor, and the incumbent enjoys a salary, which is paid in the same manner as pay is given to the soldiery. The church reform which Ferdinand refused to his subjects was accomplished in a one-sided manner by Joseph II., who suppressed all monastic establishments whose inmates did not devote their attention either to the cure of souls or to education. Of the large fund which was thus placed at the disposal of the crown, a considerable portion was set aside to be exclusively applied to purposes of religion and to the foundation and support of schools. The revenues arising from this source form what is termed the political fund in the budget, and have enabled the government to equalise the salaries of the country clergy and schoolmasters, who are thus secured comfortable, if not brilliant, means of support.

The only class of inhabitants who take an active part in the arrangement of their church affairs are the Protestants. Where Protestant schools exist, they are likewise more the object of attention to the parishioners than can be the case when delivered to a monastic corporation, which arrogates pre-eminent wisdom to the exclusion of the laity. It is assuredly no exaggeration to ascribe to this circumstance of the habitual exercise of control over parochial and county interests the superiority of the Hungarians, of whom the majority are Protestants. In the other provinces a co-operation of this kind is strenuously withheld by church and government from the Catholic portion of the population, and the tutelage usurped by the latter as heir to the former serves in a great measure to explain why many of the provinces have made so little advance, in spite of the relief afforded by the changes of Joseph, which indeed lightened the pressure on the people, but not by imparting fresh vigour to those who bore it.



The schools are altogether the weakest side of Austria, and their present organization is the work of a man who long enjoyed the confidence and cruelly abused the weaknesses of the late emperor. That uniformity which has been represented as oppressive in the extreme in matters of law and government, becomes fearfully destructive when applied to public instruction. But this alone can explain why the peasant who resides but a few posts from the capital is, in point of mental cultivation, but little raised above the denizen of Galicia, or of Croatia, of the same rank, and why the absurd (because debauching) pilgrimages to Maria Zell and Maria Taferl, almost within sight of the Cathedral of St. Stephen's, find as many votaries as those to the Czenstwa Gora or Mount Calvary in Poland. Between the two, surrounded by the loftiest hills of Central Europe, with the rudest climate and a soil of moderate fertility, the traveller is surprised at finding the limited district known by the name of Kuhländchen, in Silesia. A colony of German and Moravian Protestants has here founded a monument to industry and intelligence, which satisfactorily evinces that the old French saying, "*Laissez faire*," may be applied advantageously to other interests besides those of commerce, and that even the wisest tutelage is debasing and enfeebling to a people. That the people of the Germanic provinces themselves would have remedied the faults in their social organization more than a century ago, if they had not been prevented by Dampierre's dragoons, we have already stated.

But this very prop and stay of the crown, the army, is as great a sufferer as any other class by the present system of education. Few and scattered are the scientific lights which this mass of 400,000 males in the finest age emits, and the fate of those who take such unnecessary trouble, as it is considered, is not such as to excite emulation. Captain Biala's name is known to the world from his calculation of the orbit of the comet which bears his name. It is less known that he has for years languished in his native province on half-pay; and the world has never heard that, in a letter of reply to a celebrated astronomer who wrote to congratulate him upon the appearance of the comet at the period he had indicated, he lamented that the wants of a growing family had forced him

to sell his instruments, so that his comet had appeared and passed away, and he alone in the scientific world *had not seen it!*

Yet even in this branch a certain care for physical wants is observable, and deserves praise. The provinces and cities which do not build barracks must receive the troops into the houses of the inhabitants, against a modicum of requital, which it answers the purpose of both parties to give in labour for the household rather than in money. In this respect the common soldier loses the indoctrinating process of drill which obtains in the Prussian army, but has more ease and is perhaps better fed than the Prussian recruit. Unfortunately, however, the inevitable results from the intrusion of a stranger with some title to command into families is too clearly expressed by the saying current in many provinces, "that for six kreutzers a day the peasant has to share his room, his hearth and his wife with the man in uniform."

One branch of science only enjoyed the patronage of Emperor Francis, perhaps in consequence of the active part he took in the last campaigns of the war. The art of medicine was much cultivated during his reign. The materials were those in the excellent school founded by Joseph and Van Swieten; and some years after the peace, the army, which could not show a general who single-handed was able to conduct a successful campaign against the French, had the best assistant-surgeons in Europe.

The failure of the grand effort made by the enlightened portion of the capital to obtain the Imperial sanction for the foundation of an academy of sciences, will bear a lasting testimony to the late emperor's dread of discussion and mental activity even in the schools. The expulsion of the students of the university from the Imperial cabinets, in which their lectures used to be held to their great advantage, was recently ordered on the suggestion of a nobleman who filled the office of tutor to the poor Duke of Reichstadt.

It was necessary to preface the recently published statistical returns with these observations, in which whatever may seem harsh will find its excuse in the light they throw upon the condition of the people, on which the circumstances they describe had so much influence. We have already had an

opportunity of alluding to the signal changes that have since the commencement of the present reign taken place, and to the hopes which they justify.

We proceed to illustrate the population returns now published, and which agree with the Table No. II. annexed to this article; but our table furnishes additional information on other essential points, especially on the state of agriculture in the provinces. M. Becher has given the returns as late as 1839, and we have therefore given his statement of the population in that year. It is not likely that the quantity of land under cultivation has much changed since 1837.

On one point we are however compelled to express our disappointment. This gentleman gives only the returns for single years, not even furnishing more complete materials for scientific investigation. He selects too for discussion any year that presents the most favourable result. M. Springer has given averages of longer periods, but only down to 1835. But as the state of the population only takes up a small portion of M. Springer's work, we have thought it right to furnish such of our readers as follow publications of the kind with attention, with two Tables from our own resources, which in a great measure supply the deficiency. The one, No. III. of the appendix to the present article, gives the movement of the population in the great towns for the ten years between 1828 and 1837; the other, No. X., shows the number of the population of each province in every year between 1818 and 1837. We have likewise given in Table No. VII. the statistical results from M. Becher's communications for 1839 for all the provinces.

Vienna, the capital of this great empire, is one of those towns which were founded and prospered under the inartificial impulse of the necessities of a people. There is good and solid reason for its prosperity as a trading station, and this prosperity may therefore be considered as likely to be durable. The Alps run out from Styria, where the ancients termed them "the Noric," to the Danube in three principal chains, enclosing two plains of different dimensions. The more easterly of the two is the lesser plain of Hungary; that to the west has been termed the basin of Vienna, and corresponds on the other side of the Danube with the much larger plain of the

March or Móra in Moravia. The Romans, in founding a city near the pass which connects these two plains, and through which the Danube flows, naturally chose the western fall of the central or Leitha mountain range. Carnuntum was fixed by them a little above Pressburg, on the southern bank of the Danube, where the ruins of its walls are still to be seen. We know from the bas-relief on Trajan's pillar that the city stretched down to the Danube; and the ruins alluded to, which are part of a gate, are sufficiently distant from the bank to allow of the inference that Carnuntum covered as much ground as Vienna now occupies. Similarly natural reasons made the Hungarians erect Pressburg upon the northern bank, and on the eastern side of the mountain barrier, which in its continuation on that side of the Danube takes the name of Crapak or Carpathian.

The founders of the present city of Vienna were the margraves and dukes of Austria, who undertook the defence of the eastern Marches against the Magyars (Hungarians), then in possession of both the plains above mentioned. When these warlike chiefs had extended their boundary to the Leitha chain, and secured the possession of the plain on its western side, they descended from their mountain-castles of Mölk and Mödling, and settled in Wien, whose etymology indicates Slavonic origin. About the same period, one hundred years after the presumptive heirs to the British crown, the children of Emma of Normandy, had sought the hospitality of a king of Hungary, consequently a century after the foundation of Westminster Abbey, Frederick Barbarossa, marching to the second crusade, halted with his powers in this same plain, and lent splendour to the consecration of the newly-founded cathedral of St. Stephen's.

Independently of the advantages of a most easy water-communication, the valley of the Danube offers the only good passage between east and west in this part of Europe. The Alps, with their ramifications on the south; the Bohemian, Silesian and North Hungarian mountain-chains on the left bank of the river, form impediments which give the main roads an inevitable direction to this grand artery, and in the very point in which this line is traversed by the easiest communication between north and south, stands the city of Vienna.

As long as the trade of the East from the Levant streamed up this river, or, through Venice, traversing the Alps, sought the central marts Prague, Breslau and Cracow, no point could be better chosen for the speedy creation of a powerful capital. Yet the exposed position in the plain, in the face of formidable Magyar and Slavonian neighbours, and in this grand thoroughfare which all hostile incursions, from whatever side they were made, must unavoidably take, confined the city within the limits of a walled circuit, which checked its extension. Its growth was further restrained after the subjection of these two rival nations by the alteration in the grand route of Eastern commerce, which had so much influence on the decay of Venice itself; and the diminution of the resources of Vienna from that quarter was imperfectly compensated by its becoming the permanent residence of the German emperors. Externally the city was beautified by Charles VI., who brought with him a taste for architecture from Italy; but he was less successful in other attempts, which would have produced great results for his empire and for Europe. The conquests of Eugene had no sooner driven the Turks out of Syrmia, and annexed the valley of the Save to Hungary, when plans were formed for connecting that rich portion of his dominions with the Adriatic Sea, which was thus rendered accessible. The road which he constructed across the Julian Alps to Fiume still remains as a monument of the clear-sightedness and laudable ambition of this monarch, which is thus strongly contrasted with the short-sighted vanity of his imperial daughter. Had this line of trade been cultivated by his successors, and had they refrained from sharing in that weakest act of modern policy, the partition of Poland, Europe would now number an additional civilized community amongst its states, and Austria would long since have been the arbiter of the East, if not the mistress of the Black Sea. Our readers have already been made acquainted with the value of this thoroughfare from the Euxine to the Mediterranean, which ignorant diplomatic self-sufficiency thus threw away; while a century has been suffered to elapse without repairing the error. This subject, however, belongs to a later part of our task; we may here only remark, that it was the fear of seeing this formidable position attained by Austria which made Richelieu, in the

spirit of policy suited to the seventeenth century, deem no sacrifice too great if Austria were but humbled.

Trieste, another favourite of Charles, has natural obstacles both in its harbour and mountainous vicinity, which render communication with the country at its back tedious and expensive. In the long period of time in which this town has formed the sole point of contact with the sea for so many lands, it has not grown up into the important place that it would in another situation infallibly have become. Even now its population does not exceed that of the chief town of the mountainous province of Styria, neither does its mercantile wealth equal, nor its credit stand so high as that of Augsburg. Vienna, thus cut off from the sea, found itself reduced to the position of a central point for the expenditure of the revenues of the nobles and of the court, revenues, which the want of due interchange reduced far below their proper value. They proved, however, sufficient to spread affluence over a city which was of limited extent, and, in Maria Theresa's time, Lady Mary Montague was able to remark that "*même les vendeuses de pommes ont l'air aisé.*"

The great boon conferred by Francis II. upon his people was the invaluable one of roads. Under his reign *macadamized* roads were carried in all directions between the principal points of the provinces which submitted to his system of taxation. Hungary, which refused the burden, remained without the benefit, but afterwards created for itself what served in some measure as a substitute,—the steam navigation on the Danube. The value of all kinds of property was nearly doubled by these two acquisitions, roads and steamboats, and nobles, as well as citizens, found themselves soon in possession of the materials for creating wealth, by means of industry. The laws however, which, as in a great part of Europe, had been framed in Austria for the regulation of industry, tended rather to check the enterprising who might venture upon wild speculations to their ruin, than to aid or encourage the young and hopeful to exertion or the disappointed to renewed activity. In considering the state of the finances, we shall show that the tendency both of the fiscal and police regulations is to throw all the industry into the hands of the rich by discouraging small beginners. The nobles were thus compelled to

turn manufacturers by deputy in their own defence, and there is now scarcely a large landed proprietor in the empire who is not engaged in trade. This state of things turned out most favourable to the capital by means of a financial operation, the results of which have proved far more important than could have been expected. This was the foundation of the Imperial National bank in 1817, the primary destination of which was to replace the old paper circulation, discredited by two national bankruptcies during the war, with another which promised to preserve its respectability. The bank has not only done this, but has proved a source of great prosperity to the nation.

The capitalists of Vienna were in the first instance the holders of bank shares, and the subscribed capital amounted to 25,315,500 florins (about £253,000). As the credit of the government grew with the continuance of peace and the regular payments of interest on the national debt, the new notes were so freely taken, that, in spite of large issues in exchange for the old paper, they became a most useful circulating medium for commercial purposes. So rapid was the progress made that in 1841 the discounts amounted to 296,553,809 florins, and the dividend to 80 florins on 500 florins stock, which then was worth 1592 florins in the market. This bank proved a bond of alliance between the Vienna capitalists, to whose management it was in great measure left, and the government, whose financial operations they seconded in every manner, every recent loan having been contracted for by the Vienna houses without external aid. It formed also a bond of union between the manufacturing nobles and citizens and the capital, as all bills were sent to the capital to be discounted. Lastly, the agriculturalist fell under a considerable obligation to those bankers who, acting as mediators for the exportation of his produce, procured him a high price, and even advanced the means of improving the cultivation of the soil. Thus from all sides, by means of the influence of the bank, gain was streaming into the capital, and circulating in return to the extremities of the remotest provinces. Vienna itself became, as was natural, an important manufacturing place, and shawls, silks, with other fabrics demanding skill and taste in design, were soon produced there on advantageous terms.

The central position of the capital made it necessary for all the cotton and other raw materials for the manufactories of Bohemia and Moravia, as well as for all colonial wares imported through Trieste, to pass through it on their road to their destination. Whatever was consumed in Hungary took in a great measure the same direction, on account of the command which the Vienna traders had of capital. But it seems hard that the same command of capital should compel Hungarian wool to take the same road, whence it could only be transported by land carriage to Hamburg for shipment, when Hungary itself possessed not only the road to the Adriatic, made by Charles VI., but two others of more recent construction. This was unquestionably the result of the neglect of Hungarian interests both by the Austrian government and by the Hungarians themselves.

Vienna has thus for centuries enjoyed the advantages of a centralization, which is more the result of necessity than of calculation, and in this respect it may be said to be more happily placed than any capital in Europe. The rapid manner in which it recovered its prosperity after the pillage and insults of two French occupying armies, testifies to the natural power of its resources. But we cannot say that its progress as a city keeps pace with these means of wealth. In 1834 its population was 326,353, including the garrison; in 1837 the census showed 333,582 inhabitants, being an increase of 7229. In 1839 there was only an increase of 326, which gave 333,918 inhabitants. The tabular view of the movement of the population in the chief towns of the empire, which the scientific reader will be glad to find annexed to this article, shows that the population of the capital would have considerably diminished since 1828 if it had not been recruited by constant immigration. The excess of deaths over the births in the ten years between 1828 and 1837 was 12,119. M. Becher gives the returns for the province of Lower Austria in 1839 and 1840 as follows:—

	1840.	1839.	1837.
Births.....	53,382	52,803	51,548.
Deaths ....	51,175	50,516	51,268.

These figures show an improvement in the condition of the province, a share of which may be taken to the account of the



capital, but it is not sufficient to convey the idea of a healthy and vigorous state of the population.

We have described the position of Vienna as occupying a portion of the plain on the eastern declivity of a ramification of the Alps, where these mountains run out to the Danube. The city itself lies upon a gentle rise about three miles distant from the foot of the mountains, up the sides of which vineyards extend to a considerable elevation. While the growth of the vine indicates sufficient warmth, this open situation assures a free current of air, and the police regulations enforce the maintenance of exemplary cleanliness. There is, therefore, no reason to infer any natural cause of insalubrity to account for this stagnation in the growth of the population. The means of subsistence, as we have seen, are not wanting, between the incomes of the richest continental nobility, those of the highest paid continental placemen, and the highest protecting duties for manufacturers, united with a position which, for trading advantages, is unique amongst inland cities, although serious restraints are laid upon industry from other sides.

But what if the fault lay in this very accumulation of protection? We fear it must be owned that such is the case.

The transition of the country labourer to any occupation in the city is, in the first place, opposed by his military bondage, as between the years of eighteen and twenty-eight he is always liable to be called into service, and the authorities must know where he is to be found. When he has satisfied the authorities of his province upon this head, and has obtained a passport, he comes into the city, and finds the strictest regulations against his remaining there if he does not find immediate employment. Three days is the period usually granted for this purpose. Nor is the small capitalist more favourably placed. The application for permission to carry on any business often lies unanswered for years, and only those who can make their way by presents, and direct or indirect influence, can obtain speedy permission to erect factories, or even machines. The privileges of the established guilds are here rendered more than usually restrictive by political considerations. The number of tradesmen in each calling is strictly watched over, and the fear of exposing those in possession, and who pay enormous taxes, to compe-

tition, occasions a system of monopoly serious to the consumer, and eventually ruinous to the tradesman, whom it spoils. If we add to these limits upon the immigration of industrious strangers, the control imposed upon building speculations by military and fiscal considerations, we can form some idea of the impediments to extending the city, which keep it stationary. But this state of exemption from the animating principle of competition does not invigorate the population, as is evident from the results presented by the other details of the movement of the population. In six years we have seen that the population of the capital only augmented by births and immigration 7555, or about 1260 souls annually; while in the last three years the increase was but 326. In Berlin, with 265,000 inhabitants, the increase in twenty-one years, between 1816 and 1837, amounted to 20,986 by birth, and 62,407 by immigration, making a total of 83,393, or about 4000 per annum. Berlin has neither the advantages of climate nor of commercial position that Vienna enjoys. The price of the necessaries of life in the former, especially of food and fuel, is nearly double that in the latter city; nor, although manufacturing is extensively carried on at Berlin, can it compete with Vienna in any of those advantages which in so singular a manner have accumulated in the Austrian capital. No mountains intervene between Berlin and the sea; but that city commands no water communication with an out-port, such as Frankfort-on-the-Oder and Magdeburg possess. Now the police regulations and municipal organization of the Prussian capital are by no means models of liberality, and are of such a nature that if they could be introduced into any English manufacturing town, it would immediately be deserted; yet they compel us to infer that they must be far sounder than those of the Austrian metropolis, since the rapid increase of the population of Berlin in comparison with Vienna admits of no other conclusion.

Of the relative importance of the capital, in comparison with the other provinces on the north side of the Alps, we may form an opinion from the tables now given by M. Becher, several of which, we may observe, were published in this Review upwards of two years back.

In the year 1839 Vienna counted 26 silk-spinners and

weavers, while Bohemia had only two and Moravia one. Italy, on the other hand, where there are few or no limitations on trade, counted, with South Tyrol, 4990 filaturas and weaving establishments. But six cotton and woollen factories are returned in the capital, and 39 in its vicinity; while Bohemia and Moravia have 86. The chief objects of manufacture at Vienna in this as well as other departments are fancy articles. Vienna had in 1837, 18 bankers and 91 large mercantile houses of the first class. In 1839 we find these unaccountably reduced to 2 bankers and 83 merchants. Bohemia and Moravia, with nearly 7,000,000 of inhabitants, return only 7 bankers and 9 merchants. Galicia, the land of Jews, counts indeed 32 bankers. In the list of trades, we find Vienna employing 198 gold- and silver-smiths; the number of which in Bohemia is 142. Ribbon and velvet manufacturers in Vienna 618, in Bohemia 579; artificial flower-makers,—Vienna 117, Bohemia 14; dyers,—Vienna 178, Bohemia 181; watchmakers,—Vienna 191, Bohemia 322; machinists and opticians,—Vienna 51, Bohemia 62; musical-instrument makers,—Vienna 138, Bohemia 169. In the Italian provinces every branch of trade is carried on by more individuals, and is usually brought to greater perfection than even at Vienna, for reasons that we shall presently state. The estimated proportion of the industry of these three portions of the empire is best shown by the amount of capital at which they are rated for the industry-tax, and which for Vienna is 24,150,000 florins, for Bohemia 6,888,097 florins, and for Lombardy and Venice 139,000,000 of florins.

Of 400,637 males of noble rank in the empire in 1837, 3310 resided at Vienna; a number which does not include the provincial nobility, the *élite* of which comes to spend the winter at the capital. This number however considerably exceeds the number of nobles in any province north of the Alps, excepting Hungary, Transylvania and Galicia, in which this rank is singularly extended. Of 66,101 clergy, but 782 reside at Vienna.

The table from which we take these details, contains another statement of a curious nature, from which it is apparent that the strictest police control does not avail so to apportion the benefits derived from property and from in-

dustry, as to ensure to all a sufficient share, still less to remove that inequality of property which theorists often describe as disadvantageous to a country. After deducting the military, the total male population of twelve provinces of the empire (not including Hungary, Transylvania, and the military frontier) are stated to amount to 9,988,845 souls, of whom the four classes of nobles, clergy, master-tradesmen and civil officers form 309,710, or about one-thirty-third. As peasants we find 1,084,600, which, when added to the others, the total does not much exceed one-seventh. In the table the number of male youths under 18 years is classed apart, and is assumed at 4,413,408; so that we have a number of male *adults* amounting to 3,181,875, or about three-fifths of the whole; (with, of course, a corresponding proportion of youth and women,) which must be looked upon as belonging to the class called by the French "*prolétaires*." The population of these provinces amounts to 20,617,243 souls, the number of unclassified individuals of both sexes and of all ages can therefore not be much less than 12,000,000. Of these the share falling to the capital is not precisely determined, but as the number of nobles, placemen, clergy and tradesmen is stated to be 18,260, if we allow these to represent families of five individuals, which is a large proportion, and add 30,000 for independent capitalists, we may suppose that about one-half of the population, or 150,000 souls, is included under this head.

M. Springer, who has written the most recent general statistical description of the empire, and who like ourselves had access to official documents, divides the population generally into two most unequal divisions. The numbers living by agriculture he assumes at 23,000,000, and those supporting themselves by technical arts he estimates at 3,000,000. As this forms a disproportion greater than is known in any of the larger states of Europe (with the exception of Russia), it must be inferred that the limitations imposed upon the trading and manufacturing classes keep a large proportion of the population in a forced subjection to the agriculturists. The numbers thus unnaturally constrained are certainly kept out of sight of the capital and of the large provincial towns, but they do not remain undistinguished to the eye of the

observant traveller; nor can so large a mass be overlooked, as we here see, when statistical accounts are drawn up. This is then the fruit of the vicious circle in which a state moves, when it depends upon monopoly to support taxation; and this is the result for which the Austrian empire has had so long to groan under the load of police restrictions, an immense standing army, a cruelly severe passport system, and monopoly in trade. The publication of these results is assuredly the death-knell of so false a system.

Our Table No. VIII. bears curious testimony to the fostering policy pursued towards the capital. On a moderate estimate of weights bearing an equal distance between those of Paris and of Leadenhall market, it would seem that the share of meat in the shape of beef, mutton, veal, pork, game, poultry and fish which falls to each individual of 330,000, as consumed within the gates of Vienna, amounts per head *at least* to 250 lbs. per annum. It must not however be forgotten, that owing to the very natural love of the Viennese for the beautiful country that surrounds the city, perhaps one-fourth more may be added for meals consumed without the barriers, a total that we believe is not equalled by any other city in the world. The quantity of grain and flour on which the octroi was levied, gave 3 cwt. per head for the entire population.

The other tables however show, that much as good eating and drinking must be valued as a desirable item in the prosperity of a nation, yet that quite as much depends upon the manner in which this good is obtained, and on the way in which it is enjoyed. The well-fed and fully-employed population of the capital presents in most respects no enviable picture, as far as its physical prosperity is concerned, when compared with the condition of the provinces, where such means of comfort and enjoyment are nowhere to be found. Taking the population of the city as above at 330,000, we find the average of the births in the ten years from 1828 to 1837, to be as 1 to  $23\frac{1}{2}$ ; the twelve provinces of the empire showed during the same period a proportion of 1 birth to  $26\frac{1}{2}$  living inhabitants. The deaths in the capital average during the same period of ten years, 1 to  $20\frac{2}{3}$  of the population; in the twelve provinces show an average of 1 in 29 inhabitants. In the most favourable year, 1834, the deaths at Vienna were 1

in 24 inhabitants; in the twelve provinces they averaged 1 in 32 in the same year. The worst year, or that in which the provinces suffered most from the cholera, was 1831. In that year the deaths amounted to 1 in 25 in the twelve provinces; Vienna in the same year had 1 death in 20 $\frac{9}{10}$  inhabitants. In 1836, when the cholera appeared a second time in the capital, the number of deaths was 1 in 17.

These results are shown by documents which, as we before observed, deserve perhaps even more credit than similar returns in other countries. The language which they speak is intelligible enough, nor can it be reasoned away by comparisons with other capitals, because the boast of the Austrian government always has been, that the organization of the police at Vienna prevents the existence of such suspicious neighbourhoods and dens of iniquity as are to be found in Paris, London and other places. The loss of life by accident and crime still amounts to a considerable number. In the ten years from 1828 to 1837, there were 18 individuals murdered, 411 suicides, and 787 accidental deaths, notwithstanding the constant presence of a strong body of police, and of the innumerable sentries and patroles furnished to a comparatively small "enceinte" by a garrison of 10,000 men. In a moral point of view, the proportion of 1 illegitimate to 1 $\frac{1}{2}$  legitimate births, as the average of ten years, must be considered awful, even if it were possible to allow that one-half of the infants were born in the lying-in-hospital.

If the strictness of the inquiries of the financial department have been of service in enabling us to estimate the condition of the capital, they are equally useful in showing the state of the provinces. We have already alluded to the actual survey which has been made by the engineer corps of the greater number of the provinces, and of the care with which the estimates of the civil officers are drawn up. The forests occupy for the most part the summits and elevated sides of the mountain chains, together with the valleys of difficult access which they enclose. It may therefore be assumed that the extent of land now rated as cultivated, marks what can be applied to the support of the inhabitants without the investment of enormous sums in improvements.

The difference which will be observed in many provinces

in the classification of the cultivated land between the years 1829 and 1837 is doubtless in part to be ascribed to the rectification of the returns, which become annually more accurate; but the influence of a stricter enforcement of the land-tax, which greater accuracy induces, cannot remain without its effect upon the cultivation of the soil.

The greatest disproportion between the extent of the cultivated and uncultivated land is found in Tyrol; the surface of which province contains 4,940,000 jochs (10,000 to the Austrian square mile), whereas the surveys show but 3,460,530 cultivated, of which 1,946,200, or considerably more than the half, is forest land, and 648,800 common grazing land. The share of cultivated land which falls to each of the 839,755 inhabitants, from the total of 865,830 jochs ( $=1\frac{2}{3}$  English acres) of arable, garden and irrigated meadow land, is not large, and supposes industry and activity in the population. The woodman's labour is of course most in demand, and receives something of a chivalrous impress from the freedom of chase. The pasturage of cattle on the Alpine meadows, which derive their fertility from the glacier milk, or drainings of the snow-capped summits, is now mostly confided to the women, who take up their summer abode in solitary huts at an elevation which cuts them off from other ken of social life than the whoop which answers to their call from the hut scarcely visible on the opposite mountain, or the occasional or periodical visit of the stray or the favoured huntsman, who seeks a night's lodging and mountain fare. The trade of a carrier is one that occupies a number of hands, and of the roads which we observed were constructed under the late emperor, the largest share has fallen to Tyrol. The route to Italy by the Brenner, perhaps the oldest traverse of the Alps, has been augmented by a branch on the south side, which passes through Belluno straight to Venice. The central line through the pass of Finstermünz, which separates the valley of the Inn from that of the Adige, branches to the east through Meran to the Brenner line and the Lake of Guarda, while on the west it climbs the perpendicular declivity of the Stelvio, in fifty-two terraced windings, to pass the highest travelled elevation (8000 Austrian feet) in Europe. The most western

road follows the valley of the Upper Inn, through Engadine, and passes the Splügen to the Lago Maggiore.

It is scarcely possible to regret that the resources of such rich provinces as those of the north of Italy should have been placed at the disposal of a government, who has used them to render that lovely country accessible to the nations living to the northward of the Alps. No less prolific source could have supplied those means, and had Bavaria retained the possession of this province, so great a benefit could not possibly have been conferred upon it. The Bavarians moreover strove by regulation and an increase of the taxation to draw a revenue from these mountains, which in the hands of Austria annually consume large sums drawn from other parts of the empire. This will sufficiently explain why the Tyrolese is a natural friend to the "*statu quo*" from which he derives this benefit. But in Tyrol there is a marked division between the inhabitant of the northern side, who has these facilities before him when he turns his wistful eyes to the sunny plains of the south, and the (Welsh) inhabitant of the circles of Bolzano, Trent and Roveredo, who, in looking the same way, turns his back upon them, and is perhaps inclined to undervalue them. In the southern valleys the cultivation of the mulberry-tree, of the vine, and of choice table fruits, supersedes the thrifty farming of the north. Even the olive claims the warmer corner of the rocks, and the orange and lemon tree are found on the Lake of Guarda, of which the traveller then takes leave until he reaches the Ligurian coast or the Campagna of Rome. The Welsh (Italian) blood is visibly separated from the German by the mountain barrier through which the Adige finds a vent; but the valley of the Upper Adige, in which the races mingle, presents a set of inhabitants almost unrivalled for beauty and physical power.

In order to give an idea of the position of the Tyrolese and of the necessity he is under of labouring, it must be remarked that  $\frac{2}{3}$ ths of all the forests are crown-land, and are appropriated mostly to particular purposes; being in part apportioned to the salt and iron mines;  $\frac{2}{3}$ ths are the property of ecclesiastical corporations and feudal lords, so that but  $\frac{1}{3}$ th remains for the use of the actual inhabitants.



Tyrol shows a greater subdivision of landed property than any province to the north of the Alps. This circumstance arises naturally from the increase of the population in proportion to the cultivated superficies which eventually induces a species of garden cultivation, which is performed by the family while the man pursues a trade. Manufactures are likewise springing up, and when labourers grow more abundant will doubtless thrive. In such a state of things large estates cannot be held together, and the only parts of the province which present a picture of real misery are those which formed until recently part of the lands of the bishoprics of Trent and of Salzburg. A commutation of the feudal burdens on these districts was only decreed in 1835. Tyrol was formerly very much favoured in point of taxation, and still enjoys important immunities with respect to the industry-tax. The land-tax assessed upon the estimated produce of the land in 1829 was but 604,787 florins on a capital of 24,676,598 florins. In 1837 the capital value of the produce appears raised to 52,713,713, or considerably above the estimate for Bohemia. Our table does not give the amount actually levied for land-tax, but this increased estimate looks like a planned equalization of the imposts.

The forests of Tyrol, as has been said, furnish the mines with the necessary fuel. In 1837 the mining table shows but one coal-mine, at Hering, which produced 500 tons. The deficiency in this indispensable description of fuel for large undertakings arises, not so much from the want of coal-beds as from the almost incredible instance of adherence to old routine on the part of the head mining board of Vienna, which long made the consumption of timber as fuel in mining and smelting operations an indispensable condition of all licenses to work. This absurd regulation was abolished about two years ago, and will no doubt lead both to an extension of mining speculations and a cheapening of fuel generally; no unimportant event for the inhabitants of a province in which the snow often lies in the valleys for five months of the year.

In the middle ages Tyrol was famous for its gold and silver mines. The silver-mine of Falkenstein, long since abandoned, is said to have yielded between 1523 and 1564, silver to the weight of 2,028,501 marks. On the arrival of the Emperor

Maximilian I. to Innsbruck, to receive the homage of the estates of Tyrol, he visited this mine, and was received with flying banners by 7400 "Knappen," all armed, who presented him with gold salvers heaped with coined and uncoined silver, in weight about 1 cwt. Other mines were even more productive, and in 1483 the "Rattenberg" alone yielded 48,097 marks of silver. Strange to say, the very site of this once valuable mine is now unknown. The mine at Zell yields now about 21 marks of gold, and the whole produce of silver in all the mines on government and private account amounted in 1837 to 621 marks. We should be unwilling to set treasure-hunters, or even joint-stock companies, on a false scent, by throwing the temptation of these hidden treasures in their way without a few words of explanation. Mining with profit has almost ceased to be possible in Austria, for reasons which will constantly force themselves upon our notice at every step of our inquiry. Here we shall only allude to the high price of fuel and the great demand for iron. In the middle ages, before the influx of American gold and silver had depreciated the value of these metals, and before science had lent to iron its magical power in creating wealth, it was natural that the precious metals should engross all the attention of the miner. Now it seems that the iron-mines are the only ones which yield a profit, while a loss is noted on the gold, silver, and copper mines. The English iron-master will, however, be at no loss to account for this difference, when he looks at the figure on the top of the column in the mining table and sees that raw iron at the mine is there valued at 7*s.* 6*d.* per cwt. of 123 lbs., while cast iron is reckoned at 12*s.* per cwt. These are the prices at which, in the present state of the art, it is possible to produce iron in Austria, and to maintain which a duty varying from £11 to £60 per ton is imposed on all foreign manufactures of iron and steel. We should not be surprised to find, that if all the iron consumed on government account in roads, fortifications, and public works since the peace were calculated, the loss, in consequence of the high price, would by far exceed the gain on the mines and on the duty taken together. This calculation would serve as a standard for the loss of the country at large proceeding from the same cause, to say nothing of the loss from specu-

lations discouraged by this high price, and work badly performed for want of sufficient tools. Such is the result of retaining fixed ideas for centuries on objects so liable to change. To the Austrian financier gold is still the only wealth, and he admits it duty free; iron has not risen in his estimation; he excludes it because he does not appreciate its value. His alchemy would still be that of Raymond Lullius, whose art he evidently values above that of Watt or Fulton.

These observations apply to every mechanical undertaking and consequently to the forest culture, the navigation of the rivers of all the provinces, and even to that rich source of profit to the government, the salt-mines. The return from all these undertakings would be far greater if an abundance of iron allowed them to be economically worked. Tyrol has but one salt-mine, at Hall, in the valley of the Inn, which produced in 1837, 10,340 cwt. of boiled salt. The province of Upper Austria has several salines, the produce of which in 1837 was 54,493 tons of boiled and 379 tons of rock salt, and the management of which gives a peculiar feature to a large portion of that province. A whole mountain district, extending from Gmünden, on the beautiful lake of that name, to the confines of Styria, is reserved for the use of these mines; the forests yield fuel, the inhabitants are all in the employ of the government as labourers or officers, and the level districts furnish corn and other articles for the payment of a portion of the salaries in kind. It would here be useless to inquire whether the rigid enforcement of such a system with the parade as well as the reality of serfage in former centuries rendered the population so indisposed to the rule of their clerical lords, as to make them warm advocates for the reformed doctrines, and whether the persecution of the Protestants in these parts, which depopulated whole districts, was as much excited by the fear of losing a docile body of labourers as by religious zeal on the side of archbishops, short-sighted in both respects. So much is certain, that this district, which yields annually a large sum to the revenue, presents no pleasing aspect, as far as its population is concerned, to the traveller who visits its green streams and blue lakes. The frequent wooden crosses and road-side images which the traveller has become acquainted with in Tyrol abound in the "*Salzkammergut*," but the inha-

bitants have no more the free step and bold bearing of the mountaineer, who is unfettered in his rambles and unchecked in the line of industry he chooses to pursue. The feudal sovereignty of this large district, which is vested in the crown, enables the government to give a peculiar bias to the occupations of the people; while the standard for the recompense is rather taken from their powers of abstinence than from the market value of unrestrained industry, which to be sure is here almost unknown. This is the district of Upper Austria, whose statistical details weigh heavily in the scale; so much so as to overbalance the prosperity of the plains and of the valley of the Danube, which present a striking and consoling contrast. In the circles of the Inn and the Salzach we see the deaths in 1887 very considerably exceed the births, and cause the balance of the whole province to lean to the unfavourable side.

Mining forms almost the sole occupation, besides agriculture, of the inhabitants of Upper Styria, Carinthia and Carniola. These provinces are furnished by nature with inexhaustible veins and beds of metal, of the best qualities and easy of access. The great obstacle to their appropriation by the industrious classes lies in the measures adopted to protect and encourage the miner. The supposition that iron of fine quality could only be smelted and forged in a charcoal fire, has long made a reserve of forest lands in these provinces a necessary condition of the license to work mines, and thus prevented that increase of the population which is indispensable to the success of such undertakings. The mining circles of Bruck and Judenburg in Styria contain respectively the scarcely credible number of 53 and 46 inhabitants to the square mile; while the resources which they command in beds of ore that are quarried in open day, and in the navigable rivers, which offer the cheapest means of inland transport, are such as may well excite the envy of our Staffordshire and Warwickshire miners. Upon these advantages and upon the quality of the ores, we purpose taking another opportunity of enlarging.

The population of Carniola and Carinthia averages but 100 to the square mile, notwithstanding the fine climate and, in some parts, fertile soil of the valleys of the Save and Drave: the births exceed the deaths in the whole province. The agri-

cultural circles of Grätz, Marburg and Cilli, in Styria, have a population of 150 to 175 on the square mile. In these circles too the surplus of the births over the deaths is great, whereas in the circle of Judenburg they are nearly balanced, and in that of Bruck the deaths considerably exceed the births. It must not be overlooked, that the flourishing agricultural districts, in which the population is rapidly increasing, show an extent of arable meadow and garden land which averages  $1\frac{2}{3}$  joch per head, the forests averaging  $1\frac{5}{6}$  per head; while the depopulated mining districts show  $3\frac{1}{2}$  jochs of forest per head of cultivable land and  $4\frac{1}{2}$  jochs per individual.

All the mountainous provinces which we have been considering present one striking feature which deserves attention,—the skill with which the simplest means are made subservient to ends which in any other countries it would be thought a triumph to attain with the aid of complex and expensive machinery. Valleys cut off by perpendicular mountain ranges from the main channels of communication are made to yield their produce in timber by simple and efficacious inventions. The rill formed by the melting snow on the hill's side turns a wheel, which sets a windlass in motion, and the gigantic stems thus raised are hurled into the abyss on the other side by means of a hollow railroad or canal formed of logs, down which they slide by their own weight, or are impelled by the force of water let down for the purpose, to the spot desired.

The navigation of the rapid part of the course of many rivers which connect these mountainous districts with the middle and Upper Danube, is performed with means whose simplicity excites unqualified admiration. Thus the Traun, the Enns, the Mur, the Save and the Drave are made to transport the metals and the timber produced in the mountains to the lowlands at a cheap rate, and falls, that in the regular course of navigation would be abandoned as impracticable, are passed by loaded rafts with numerous joints, which yield to the pressure of serpentine currents on the undulating surface of rapids, with perfect security to their crews and cargoes. Still it must be owned that the means of transport do not yet lend the industrious classes the aid which they should afford.

In Upper and Lower Austria, the greater part of Tyrol and the mining provinces of Styria, the inhabitants are exclusively

German. In two of the agricultural Styrian circles, and throughout Illyria, the mass of the inhabitants is of Slavonian, but the landowners and ruling classes generally of German, origin. We here may remark the great disadvantage under which the inhabitants of a country labour, in whose language the advance of science and literature is not traced. How many valuable truths are almost unconsciously caught up by the ear of the most unwary, when they are whispered through the thoroughfares of men in tones that awaken ideas! But nearly every country in Europe has some province in which the stern law of conquest has shut the inhabitants out of a fair participation in this valuable common property, and of two great causes to which the striking inequality between different lands, which makes such a motley piece of mosaic of the map of Europe, must be attributed, this inability to make a legitimate use of the language which the dispensation of Providence has assigned to a land, is unquestionably the most cruel and degrading. When Napoleon obtained the possession of these countries, he seemed partly influenced by the desire of weakening Austria, and partly by the wish to obtain a complete control of the coast in order to enforce his continental blockade against English commerce. With these narrow views he offered an illusory independence to Illyria, but clogged it with every possible device in order to prevent either the physical or mental resources of the nation from being applied to any than French advantage. Yet even under these restraints the feeling which he awakened was sufficiently powerful to call up a lyric poet of no common ability, and the poems of M. Wodnik, who died while yet young, are likely to prove the only stable monument of that strange event.

Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia of course labour in some measure under the same disadvantage; but the difference between the condition of the mass of the people in those countries and in the German provinces is gradually disappearing in consequence of the zealous attention paid to the education of the people by wise and benevolent members of the upper and middle classes. We have before remarked that Joseph II. relaxed the severity with which the Bohemians were long treated by the Austrian government: he allowed the language to be cultivated, and as this took place before

such means were laid hold of by adventurers to forward political demonstrations, the use that was made of the permission gave no umbrage. The labours of the Abbé Dubrowsky, at the close of the last and the commencement of the present century, furnished his countrymen with a critical basis for the cultivation of their dialect of the Slavonian, and in the course of time a popular literature accumulated, and the revival of old poetical legends excited the interest of strangers and knit with double ties the bond of attachment to his native land, which everywhere distinguishes the Slavonian. The cultivation of the vernacular tongue brought the clergy of the Romish church nearer to their flocks, and enabled them to fill the meritorious post of mediators between the spirit of a Germanic centralization and their feelings and necessities. Of the large portion of the Bohemian clergy, who soon perceived all the importance which this position conferred upon them, it is impossible to speak in terms of sufficient praise. They became early aware that superior attainments in their order were demanded to occupy it with credit to themselves and utility to their flocks, and the spirit which this conviction infused into the students of universities soon influenced the rising generation of the landed gentry and nobility, whose power in these countries is so great. The result has been a most desirable one, although, from the nature of the circumstances, but partial; and indeed many attempts to counteract this praiseworthy tendency have not been wanting both on the part of the hierarchy and of that set of official characters amongst the civil authorities, from whose baneful influence nothing but the salutary control of a publicity too much dreaded in Austria can purge a state. Yet in the most rapid progress through the country the experienced eye can detect the villages and towns in which the landlord and clergyman belong to this really patriotic fellowship, and to whom the government, no less than their countrymen, is under the deepest obligations.

From the great effect which the spirit that we have described, as introduced among the clergy and the higher classes from the universities, is likely to produce upon the Catholic church to the northward of the Alps, and the support which it is calculated to lend politically to the sway of Austria as the leading Catholic power, we are inclined to call the attention of

the English public seriously to the fact. We are far from believing, we regret to say, that this is the view of the case taken at Vienna; but we are convinced that the enlightened statesmen who have originated the serious improvements which the history of the last two years records, will not long overlook the powerful engine which is thus placed in their hands, for consolidating the might of this empire upon the unshaken basis of popular opinion. Whoever has lived much upon the continent cannot fail to have perceived, that, even where the old forms of Catholicism are observed, the spirit has so totally departed from them, that they are degraded to mere empty show, where they are rigorously exacted. No greater boon than a clergy ripely prepared to distinguish between what is needful and what is obsolete, could be desired by a state in the position in which Austria stands. Now a large body of youthful clergy have thus been ripened and prepared in the university of Prague, and are widely diffused through the Austrian dominions, to the infinite benefit of their flocks and of the state. Widely different from the mad innovators of the French school, who would destroy all forms of church and state whose utility they could not see because they were unable to appreciate their tendency, the preaching of this school goes to reconcile the people to the prescribed forms, by showing where they are useful and pointing to the means of alleviating whatever pressure they may occasion. It would be unpardonable not to record the name of the remarkable man whose penetrating mind furnished his scholars with a logical foundation for this pious career. Professor Bolzano is a man of whom any country in Europe would have been justly proud; nor is his reputation the less in Bohemia that he has been deposed from the chair of logic, which he filled with a splendour that has only not radiated abroad, because his works were not suffered to be printed in a regular manner. In the retreat to which the persecution of the hierarchy and their satellites drove him, and which was long kept secret to preserve him from personal annoyance, the most unbounded veneration of men, who themselves inspired a high and merited respect by their talents and conduct, followed him. Here he long enjoyed the satisfaction of seeing from a distance the progress of the work he had set in motion,—and that it was good.



The political importance accruing to Austria from its being recognised the head of the Catholic church in central Europe, must clearly receive a great accession of weight from the hold which that confession has on the popular feelings. That this hold in our age can only be strong when the religious tenets which it diffuses do not clash with common sense, must be equally evident; and we cannot but repeat, that it seems incomprehensible that statesmen do not eagerly seize upon the bridge which has thus been providentially constructed for them over the abyss of innovation, which commonly threatens to swallow up everything oppressive in its gorge. The merited influence which Austria would gain by adopting the views of this school of Catholicism would not only be perceptible at home, but would stretch beyond the Carpathians, and even beyond the Alps. What physical barrier could restrain the impulse of so grand a moral movement, for which millions are panting, and which alone could justify to future ages the otherwise false and short-sighted policy that dictated the partition of Poland?

That the crown at home would lose nothing by such a step is clear; since, as far as we have been able to gather the opinions of the enlightened Catholics in Austria and Germany, where this school of course has spread, one of their chief wishes is that the Christian world shall declare a body of cardinals educated in Italy, ignorant of the languages, manners, habits and necessities of the northern nations,—not to be fit judges of the moral or material wants of Germanic and Slavonic countries. On these terms, while an unity of the church is advocated by confiding the preservation of the doctrine to a conclave formed of ecclesiastical deputies [from all nations at Rome, they profess that the sovereign, aided by the synod of his clergy, is the only fit arbiter of local institutions and regulations, and of the persons to whom the direction ought to be entrusted. One would think that no monarch need be alarmed at the tendency of such doctrines, while there can be little doubt that the first Catholic sovereign who adopts and has power to carry them out, will be the arbiter of the east of Europe.

In Moravia and Silesia, where the persecuted Protestants found more shelter than Bohemia, as the actual seat of

conflict in the 17th century, afforded, a valuable relic of the old reformers, the Slavonic translation of the Holy Scriptures, has served the people both as a standard for the language, and as a moral stay and guide in life. The Moravian Protestants, at home as abroad, are distinguished by unpretending firmness, simplicity of manner and industrious habits. The Catholics in these provinces have of late reaped the benefits of the impulse given by those of Bohemia.

How favourable such a tendency upon the part of the clergy and landed proprietors must prove, for the advancement of all the peaceful arts, will easily be supposed. The proof lies in the rapid progress which these provinces have made in agricultural and manufacturing industry. The academy of sciences and literature, the Polytechnic school, and other institutions founded or encouraged by the patronage of enlightened nobles, were able to exercise their salutary influence without its being diminished by an enslaving priesthood, or abused by intriguing demagogues. We may refer to the simple chronicle contained in the pages of the '*Economische Neuigkeiten*' to prove the salutary effect of the turn thus given to the public mind in the improvement of agriculture. The progress of manufactures, in which, as we before stated, the police and fiscal regulations of the empire make the active co-operation of persons holding large capitals, or enjoying credit to a large extent, indispensable, will be shown by the export lists. The nobles of Bohemia and Moravia have been amongst the foremost to lend their names and credit to the establishment of manufactures; and although the system cannot be defended by the political economist, yet their exertions deserve full praise, while the responsibility of the error does not rest with them. We regret that the limits of an article do not admit of our noticing by name the many meritorious individuals who have thus distinguished themselves.

Bohemia contains, if we exclude the large forests, 5,454,394 jochs of cultivated land, or about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  joch (nearly two acres) per head. The forests cover 2,316,298 jochs, and furnish abundance of fuel for mining and other purposes. The climate of the vales and lowlands is moderate, and although the winters are cold, yet wine is cultivated in some of the most northerly circles. The population averages 212 to an En-

glish square mile. This general survey does not indicate any extraordinary pressure arising from density of population, which makes the transition to manufacturing industry indispensable.

Moravia and Silesia count but 200 inhabitants to the English square mile, and the extent of cultivated land, excluding forests, is 3,118,898 jochs, which gives on an average nearly  $1\frac{1}{2}$  joch, or more than 2 acres per head. The pressure is consequently still less in these provinces than in Bohemia, and is lightened by the fact that a large portion of the lowlands in the centre of Moravia is unusually fertile.

These two provinces have besides a rich source of gain, arising from the passage of the great thoroughfare through them, which leads from the capital, as the central point on the Danube, to the north-east and north-west of Europe. In speaking of Vienna it was noticed, that the command of capital possessed by the merchants of that city drew a large share of the trade of the eastern provinces within its focus; and that especially the colonial wares and raw materials for the manufacturers consumed in all the provinces to the northward of the Danube, took that direction from the Adriatic Sea.

Through Vienna the wool of Hungary passes, not only to supply the cloth-weavers of Moravia and Bohemia, but to the fairs of Leipzig, and more frequently direct to Hamburg by the Elbe for shipment to England, Belgium and France. All the purchases made at the fairs of Leipzig and Brunswick on account of the east of Europe, or for the Levant, necessarily take also the road through Prague to Vienna, and, as we shall see, tend greatly to swell the trade reports of Hungary. The road from the grand focus at Vienna to Poland passes through Moravia and Silesia, and is at the same time the main channel of supply of food for the capital, especially of cattle. The cattle-fair of Olmütz is one of the largest on the continent, and is supplied from Poland, Moldavia, and even from Bessarabia. The due cultivation of the means of transport along these main arteries, which connect a scattered population of so many millions, demands, of course, no small application of capital and skill; but until very recently they were so much neglected, that a most remarkable inequality of price in articles of indispensable necessity is exhibited in our Table

No. IX., which can be accounted for on no other grounds. The March or Morawa, which traverses the whole of the level part of Moravia from Olmütz to the Danube, and which is in its natural state navigable nearly the whole way, even now sees but a few wretched fishing barks skimming its surface. The Elbe and the Moldau in Bohemia, which Joseph II. desired to make great thoroughfares of trade, and, by means of a junction canal to the March, to unite with the Danube, are deserted by traders, who can send their wares as cheaply and more expeditiously by land. Until the railroad to Silesia from Vienna was completed, there were but two public carriages in the week to Troppau in Silesia. To Teschen, Wicliczka and Lemberg, the chief town of Galicia, containing 60,000 inhabitants, only one diligence, carrying four passengers, went back and forwards in the same period. Of course the trade, which otherwise would have been so considerable along these roads, dwindled into insignificance, and the most natural branch of industry after mining was voluntarily abandoned by those whom it ought to have enriched.

Mining, which in the middle ages was carried on in Bohemia upon a great scale, and to which the sovereigns of that country in a great measure owed their power, has been long declining, in consequence of the increased price of fuel, and from causes that as directly affected it as they did the carrying trade. The government mines in the district of Joachimsthal, whose productiveness in former times furnished a name for the most current species of coin, the dollar ('thaler,' i. e. 'Joachimsthaler'), now leave a loss to the government, which if it were not covered by the gain in the district of Przibram would probably cause it to be altogether abandoned.

We cannot but ascribe this depression of mining industry, of trade, and the poor remuneration for agricultural produce, to one grand cause, although doubtless many minor causes co-operate to produce its present mode and pressure; we mean the undue protection afforded prematurely to manufacturing industry, by which capital and skill are diverted from more natural and more remunerating channels. This grand political error, which has done so much to retard the advance of all continental states during the last twenty-five years, is founded upon a mistaken notion of the source of the wealth

of England. Nothing that the most enlightened political economists can advance (and those who merit the name are unanimous in their opinion) will convince the statesmen of the continent that the wealth of England is not solely, or at least for the greater part, derived from our manufactures. They totally overlook the fact that the great sources of wealth, freedom of thought and of action, security of property by an even-handed administration of justice, and but little interference with the natural growth of industry, favoured the accumulation of that capital which, when the nation by the continental blockade was thrown upon its own resources, enabled it to take up manufactures with triumphant success. In addition to this happy political development came the abundance of ores in our islands, with the inexhaustible supplies of fuel in our coal-beds to work them; but even this advantage is not peculiar to Great Britain, and we have already remarked how recently the step was taken by the Austrian government which has enabled its subjects to derive any benefit from the use of the coal-mines, that have for years been known to exist.

But on the subject of manufacturing we are willing to admit that nothing can be said of convincing weight against protection, if it be shown that the manufactures have enriched the country, and have added to the stock of comforts of its inhabitants, in a measure that they would not have enjoyed without them. Now when we look at the low condition of trade, at the depression of mining, while there is an evident want and a great demand for metals, we can come to no other conclusion than that the prices at which these articles of first necessity are supplied, exceed the powers of the general consumer. The Table No. IX. shows the average price of labour to be in Bohemia  $13\frac{1}{2}$  kreutzers, or about *5d.* per day; a sufficient proof that the manufacturers, even with the present high prices, cannot afford to give wages sufficiently high to influence the value of labour throughout the province. The rate of interest denoted in the same table, which in Bohemia is  $6\frac{1}{4}$  per cent., and in Moravia between 9 and 10 per cent., does not indicate any superfluity of capital, which has no other resource than manufactures to employ it. As the figures here quoted are not of our invention, and are not

even furnished from our private sources, we trust we shall not be charged with reasoning otherwise than from facts as we find them, and which we know from personal observation to be very near the truth.

The observations which we have here ventured upon the policy of holding out premature and extravagant protection, in order to give a peculiar direction to the industry of a country, of course involve no slight upon the industrious classes of these countries, in whom it would have been unnatural if they had not seized upon the means of gain held out to them. It is better that a country should be supplied with the instruments of industry and the means of comfort, even at a dear rate, than not at all; and if the greater gain arising from the savings of the mass of people be neglected, it is well to foster the far smaller gains that accrue to the manufacturer, and which are thus all that the land has to look to. The perverse notion that gain increases in an inverse ratio as skill and capital are applied to subtler and more refined kinds of industry, has, as we have seen, caused the abstraction of both from agriculture and trade to manufactures; but it is meritorious to make the effort where the conviction is firm, and where the allurements on the one side are accompanied by equally ill-judged restraints and hindrances on the other. Thus allured to advance, and impeded in the natural channels of development, the Bohemians and Moravians have thrown themselves into manufacturing, and have to a certain extent been successful. It will naturally exceed the comprehension of a Preston or Manchester manufacturer, that with protecting duties in many cases exceeding 100 per cent., with materials furnished on the spot, and with the low rate of wages quoted in the Table No. IX., while such populous and productive countries are eagerly demanding supplies, immense fortunes should not be made by those to whom the exclusive privilege of furnishing the supplies is thus secured. But here we have the test of the utility of manufactures to a country. In England, in spite of high prices for labour, large fortunes have been made and are daily making by manufacturers, although their current expenses and style of living are such as no continental manufacturer would venture to imitate. In Bohemia and Moravia we think it is nearly impossible to prove that any large for-

tunes have been made by *manufacturing exclusively*, in the many years during which the protecting duties have been in force. The reason of this difference appears to us not difficult to discover. The demands of agriculture do not yet throw off a sufficient number of superfluous hands, because there is not sufficient accumulation of capital amongst the agriculturists to enable them to manage the land with proper economy of labour\*. The means of transport are not sufficiently improved to raise the value of agricultural and lower the price of mining produce, and to introduce the raw materials for manufacture at a sufficiently cheap rate. The control of public opinion is removed from the government, which induces a lax administration of justice and an unnecessary interference with the personal freedom and disposal of the property of individuals. The manufacturer who depends upon the co-operation of so many classes is placed on a giddy height, under which every substratum is defective. Workmen, tradesmen, carriers, merchants, consumers, instead of lending him aid, are banded in a necessary league against him, and wherever he depends upon them he finds them deficient. The great profits of his original calculation he sees frittered away amongst the many hands over whom he has no control, while his fellow-countrymen, if they were able to trace the pressure under which they suffered to its source, could not but regard him as a leech sucking from them their life-blood to nourish an unsought and ruinous oppressor.

We must here again state that the view we take of the matter is not that which prevails at Vienna. We cannot however help thinking that our explanation goes far to render the slow progress of these fine countries to wealth and civilization comprehensible.

The cheering prospect, on the whole, which the physical condition of the population of these provinces displays, we are therefore more inclined to ascribe to the excellent spirit pervading the influential classes of the community, to which we before alluded.

In 1839 the deaths in Bohemia amounted to 118,544, while

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\* We have already alluded to the police regulations, which prevent even those labourers who might be used from being as available as they ought.

the births were 158,213, giving an excess of the latter over the former of 30 per cent. In Moravia the proportion was not so large, but for Moravia and Silesia taken together, the excess of births over the deaths was nearly the same as in Bohemia. In the latter province the births in 1837 were in the proportion of 1 in 26, and the deaths of 1 in 30 of the population. In Moravia and Silesia the births were as 1 in 25, and the deaths as 1 in 32. In Moravia the illegitimate were to the legitimate births as 1 to 7; in Bohemia as 1 to 6. All these figures show a considerable improvement above the German and Illyrian provinces.

That we are not wrong in ascribing the prosperous condition of these provinces rather to moral causes than to the effect of the manufactures thus artificially introduced into them, we think is proved by the still more favourable results shown by the statistical tables for Galicia. In this province, if we except the circles of Wadowice and Bochina, into the former of which cloth-weaving has spread from Silesia, while the latter contains the salt-mines, whose inexhaustible wealth has become proverbial, agriculture is the sole occupation of the Christian inhabitants. Cut off from the sea on the south by formidable mountain barriers, excluded from Hungary by Austrian, and from the rest of Poland by Russian, jealousy, this province, the forlorn hope of the twelve conscribed provinces, yet exhibits a state of physical prosperity scarcely paralleled in the rest of the empire. The average of the three years 1835-7 shows an annual increase of the population of Galicia of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., or equal to the British empire. Bohemia, in the most favourable period of its development, from 1815 to 1827, augmented its population only in the ratio of  $1\frac{1}{10}$  per annum. In 1837 the increase in Bohemia, where perhaps the cholera still lingered, was but  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., and in 1839 but  $\frac{2}{10}$  per cent. Galicia, we see, stands greatly in advantage in the comparison. In comparing the proportions of the deaths as they are classified according to age, we are again surprised to find a much greater proportion of deaths in the first year of life in Bohemia than in Galicia; the numbers showing of 118,544 births a mortality of 43,089 infants in Bohemia; while in Galicia 48,567 infants died in the first year out of 145,975 born. The deaths



between the birth and the fourth year, taken together, are likewise lighter on the side of Galicia; whereas in all the mean periods of life, from twenty years to sixty years of age, the advantage is decidedly on the side of Bohemia. This last fact may be satisfactorily explained by the greater use and abuse of ardent spirits (that curse of most countries in which grain is cheap) in Galicia, whereas beer is a beverage much preferred in Bohemia. The body which has been able to stand this fiery probation together with the rigours of the climate becomes, it appears, unusually robust; for the number of deaths registered above 100 years of age was in 1839 in Galicia 146, and in Bohemia but 109.

The reflections which these figures suggest are not unimportant both for the historian and the political economist. The extent of cultivated land is given in our table at 9,178,618 jochs, or nearly  $2\frac{1}{2}$  acres per head of a population of 4,600,000. The forests cover 4,250,932 jochs. If on a more dense scale of population we could not find any great pressure towards manufacturing industry, of course, in the present condition of Galicia, there must be still less. Galicia does not possess a high road of such importance as that leading from Vienna to Prague and Leipzig, but it owns, in an undervalued and degraded, because oppressed, class of its inhabitants, a mercantile element that is scarcely inferior. The Jews who have taken up their abode in these remote countries, and who form the useful accessories of bankers, merchants and pedlars for the villages, afford the peasant all the advantages which the rich landed proprietor enjoys on a larger scale in the distant commercial cities. Without the aid of these never-failing and indefatigable hucksters, it is probable that, considering the isolated and secluded position of this productive country, agricultural produce, which our table shows to be of incredibly low value, would probably be altogether unsaleable, and the peasant would be perfectly unable to pay the small sum which his lord annually demands from him in money, to say nothing of the claim made by the government in the shape of taxes. The landlords in general are wholly unconscious of the service which this class of the inhabitants renders them, and are prone to ascribe to the bargaining spirit of the Jews

the poverty of the peasants, which in truth arises from very different causes. The misfortune of Galicia is, that the mouths of the great navigable streams which ought to form channels of communication with the Baltic and the Black Sea, the Vistula with the Save and the Dniester, are in the possession of countries whose commercial policy is no less prohibitive in its tendency than that of Austria. Thus the disadvantage of a remote position, from which the great marts of trade are by natural obstacles rendered difficult of access, is augmented by artificial barriers, and the most productive lands are condemned to many of the evils of poverty. This species of privation in the present state of the country falls altogether upon the higher classes, that is to say, upon those who would have anything to export if the channels were opened. The nature of the tenure of land keeps the peasant from feeling the grievance.

The theory which has gradually grown into law in Austria, that the peasant holder of lands under a feudal chief is seized of the same, and that although he can be punished for remissness in the execution of his obligations, he cannot be ejected like an ordinary tenant, while it has operated in most of the provinces as a serious revolution in the nature of property that will show at a future day still more remarkable results, has obliged the landlord to come to an understanding with his peasant that is mutually advantageous. Land in Galicia, as in all the northern provinces and in Hungary, is held on the condition of labour in lieu of money-rent; which, in a country without foreign markets, cannot be raised. Labour of this kind is known to be (after slave-labour) the most unproductive, and a natural kind of commutation takes place, by which the peasant sends his children, or even hired substitutes, who can be made to work hard, when he can employ his own time better at home. The landlord is thus debarred from deriving advantage, as in Ireland, from the increase of the population in the shape of rent, for the holdings remain unchangeable in the value fixed by law. The value of his labour, however, he can raise by improving the condition of his peasants, and even by educating them; but the conditions of the commutation of this kind of labour being

also fixed at a low rate by the law, he is not excited to place them in a position to deprive him of the only means he possesses of cultivating his estates.

This labour-rent prevails more or less in all the provinces to the northward of the Alps, and has been uniformly regulated by the government for each province separately at different periods. It is lowest in the Austrian archduchies, where, from the change in the value of land, it has sunk into a mere quit-rent; and in that part of Moldavia which has been added by conquest to Galicia, and in which the Moldavian regulations have been retained. Here the peasant gives for a considerable holding (twenty to thirty acres) but twelve days labour in the year. In the central and western parts of Galicia the estimate is higher, but differs in different districts and on different estates. The maximum amounts to three days in the week, or 156 days in the year—a measure which is found also in Styria. Perhaps the majority of peasants are rated at 104 days, or two in the week for a whole holding (which is also various), and this amount of compensation is frequent in Bohemia, Moravia and other provinces. The whole land held by peasants in Galicia, and which perhaps exceeds 7,000,000 of jochs, is rated at 14,339,484 days of labour with waggon and four horses, and 16,564,918 days of hand-labour, which gives two days with horses and  $2\frac{1}{4}$  days of hand-labour per joch per annum. This is, however, by no means all the rent the peasant has to pay; as there are rates of spinning, duty-fowls, and a small sum of money for the house, besides the land-tax and labour for public works demanded by the crown. Last of all, the quartering of troops, as before described, for a very small requital in money, or more frequently too in labour, must be added.

The amount of "robot," or contract-labour, as above stated, is however, in certain seasons, too little for the land held by the landlord, for which, if we estimate it at 2,000,000 of jochs, it yields but fifteen days per joch in the year. He has therefore usually the privilege of making the peasants in summer work overtime, for which a small recompense, generally distributed in whisky and music, is given, or of demanding of them an additional number of days in the harvest, at a low rate of wages. The low figure quoted as the value of wages in the

Table No. IX. shows at once the high value of money in Galicia, and the operation of the system that we have described.

While the population reports continue to mark the general prosperity of this province in the manner that they now do, it is impossible to consider this state of things otherwise than as suited to the circumstances of the country. The tie which binds the peasant to his holding is not a slavish one; he can throw it up, although it cannot be taken from him; he can dispose of his time and property and of that of his family, with the exception of what he is bound to give for the enjoyment of his portion of land. The cheapness of provisions keeps him generally well supplied with food, and the dependence of his lord upon his labour obliges him to be generally disposed to aid his necessities in years of pressure, by deferring or relinquishing altogether his claims for money rates. The accumulation of capital both in the hands of the landowners and of the peasants is, however, in this province seriously impeded by the high price of all implements required in agricultural and other industry, as well as of many articles of clothing. The price of tools and machines interferes with the proper economy of a farm, which would make hand-labour both dispensable and cause it to be more in demand; so that if the government, instead of arbitrarily lowering the standard of the commutation of labour, had relaxed the restrictions upon trade, it is probable that the emancipation of the peasant from what is generally considered as an oppressive yoke would have made considerable progress since the peace. The exportation of a great deal of the produce of Galicia might be facilitated materially by opening other debouches in the place of those which now lead into the Russian portion of Poland. The railroad which is in process of building from Vienna to Bochnia is a great step forwards, but a more economical line seems to be indicated through Hungary by means of the river Theiss. Thus aided to produce cheaply by being furnished with good and cheap implements of labour, and induced to produce abundantly by the opening of foreign markets, capital would sooner accumulate in this natural manner than by a forced imitation of a state of things in other countries, of which the present circumstances of these provinces do not admit.

We noticed some pages back, that Galicia contained two

Slavonian tribes, the Mazurs and the Ruthenes; the former belonging to the Polish, the latter to the Russian family. The Ruthenes mostly profess the united Greek religion, but stand in a double disadvantage with respect to language with the Poles. Their language has for centuries ceased to be a written one; and not only the government of the country, but all branches of knowledge, reject it as a vehicle of communication. The number of Ruthenes amounts to about 2,000,000, and they occupy the most fertile portion of the province; yet the disadvantages of this difference of language, of a less cultivated clergy, and of absentee landlords for the most part, keep this portion of the province very much behind the rest.

The University of Lemberg is, as a recent foundation, too little interwoven with the national elements of the province, and the fear of insubordination has caused the government at all times to keep too tight a hand upon its professors, for it to have taken any peculiar or characteristic bias. Most of the lectures are held in Latin, many in German, and nearly all are dull timid recitals held to uninterested auditors. If the Austrian system of study did not make it incumbent for every applicant for a place in a public office, or even for leave to carry on a trade, to produce a prescribed number of professors' certificates, the time of the majority of the scholars would no doubt be devoted (more profitably) to private studies. Thus the inhabitants of Austrian Poland want that care and fostering spirit which, as we have seen, is working so beneficially in Bohemia. The parish clergy and the schools are both upon a different and far less efficient footing than in Bohemia, and of the 1882 popular schools returned in 1839 as existing in the province, it is much if half the number was to be found. Indeed the tables are candid enough to state, that out of 514,701 children fit to go to school, but 69,302, or about one in eight, attended. The number returned in Bohemia for the same year is 494,926 out of 527,656 children, a contrast which will not fail to lend its due weight to our remarks.

The description of the condition of the peasantry in Galicia applies in a great measure to the same class in Hungary and Transylvania. In these countries too, and for the same reasons, labour is the chief condition upon which land is held. The peasant's holding, or session as it is called in Hungary,

varies in the different counties from a few acres in some of the northern to thirty-two jochs or nearly forty-five acres in the fertile southern districts, which were most recently wrested from the domination of the Turks. We have on several occasions pointed out the importance of the great plain of Hungary, which is watered by the Danube and the Theiss, to Austria and to civilized Europe. It forms the basis of the prosperity and power of the Austrian empire in the same manner that the Ukraine and Podolia consolidate the power of the hyperborean colossus. From this almost inexhaustible source, whose powers of production are far from having been strained to the limit, the capital and the mountainous districts of Inner Austria (Styria and Illyria), the northern Italian provinces, and a large portion of the military frontier districts draw annual supplies of grain, without, in average years, raising the market price above the level of that of Galicia. So indispensable are these supplies to maintain a due equilibrium between the provinces here enumerated and the rest of the empire, that they find their way up the rivers, the navigation on which we have described as so imperfect; and when any foreign exportation takes place from Austria, it is from this district mainly, and forwarded also against the current of the Save to the Adriatic, that it must force its way. The reader will after this statement, doubtless, smile at the policy which imposes a high import-duty upon all Hungarian produce imported into Austria; and our never-failing Table (No. IX.) pretty clearly indicates, by the high price of grain at Vienna and in the mountainous provinces, on whom the tax in reality falls. The jealousy so long manifested by Austria of Hungary, in the exclusion of the rich produce of the latter country, seems to have been bequeathed by that weakest of the Lorraine branch of the house of Hapsburgh, Leopold the Second, as a palladium to his scarcely less feeble successor, Francis. Charles the Sixth, as we have seen, had larger views, and that emperor, as well as Joseph II., evidently knew where the strength of the empire lay. Perhaps the decided opposition offered by the Hungarians to the political innovations of Joseph alarmed the timid princes who succeeded him; at all events, Hungary was neglected and oppressed during the long period of their reigns. This policy on the part of the crown had of course its effect

upon the various classes of the population, and alone satisfactorily explains the anomalous position which this magnificent country has occupied in our times. Such of the nobles as aspired to the state dignities, the clergy that looked forward to promotion to the rich benefices, and the civil officers in the pay of the crown, naturally sided with the court, which, while it accepted the services thus tendered, was steadily following a policy adapted to overthrow the influence at home of the very classes from whom it received such ill-judged support. The plans for the improvement of the lower orders which the liberal nobles were desirous of seeing adopted, were thwarted by counterplans drawn up by the government, ostensibly with the view of bettering and equalizing the conditions of all ranks, but in reality with the aim of humbling the pride of that sole class whose indomitable spirit of resistance was dreaded. The nobles who looked further than the moment had therefore no choice left but to unite in opposition to all these insidious proposals, which threatened the downfall of their ancient and free institutions. They could not give up their personal freedom from arrest to admit of the introduction of courts of justice whose arbitrary power would have annihilated all personal freedom, as is now the case in the other provinces of the empire. The Hungarian travels at will without a passport in his own country, and abroad with one which the sovereign has no legal right to refuse when demanded. The doors of the head officer of the police at Vienna may be daily seen besieged by petitioning Poles and Bohemians whom health or business calls into other parts, but who are obliged to look upon the permission, when reluctantly granted, as an act of imperial grace. To taxation as proposed by the government the noble could as little consent; for it was proposed to make him liable to demands, for the assurance of his control over which, although his birthright, no guarantees would be given. The form of provincial government adopted in the other provinces he as strenuously rejected, as he saw in it a centralizing system which took the whole guidance of the state machine out of the hands of the proper representatives of the nation, to place it in those of paid dependents on the crown\*. But

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\* Our No. XXI. contains a faithful description of the government of Hungary, from a highly authentic source.

while the nobles were thus fending off the covert attack upon the freedom of the nation, by offering resistance to the open attempt to destroy their privileges, it was of course easy to hold them up to the obloquy of the lower classes, as if they were solely striving to retain the means of oppression. In this unequal contest the government made unsparing use of every weapon it could command to drive them from their exposed position. The strange vanity of the Germans, which persisted in looking upon the destruction of every institution in their own countries as a step forward in the course of civilization, and the influence which French and German literature had in these countries, were made systematic instruments for decrying a body of men, whom the instinct of self-preservation urged to cling to long-established forms and principles. Nothing can exceed the virulence of many German writers against the Hungarian nobles during the whole of the reign of Francis II., and this tone was both applauded and rewarded at Vienna, while a word that indicated respect for the spirit shown by that class in (even the unconscious) defence of the rights of their country, or a hint at the power and importance of Hungary, was discouraged or even punished, as "of dangerous tendency." All these efforts were, in the meanwhile, not lost upon Hungary itself, as the citizens of the principal towns are mostly of German descent, and the outcry thus raised found the more readily an echo in them, that they felt themselves abased by the exclusive privileges of the nobility. This class of burghers was, moreover, encouraged by the government to prefer their claim to an equal representation in the diet with the nobles. As such a change in the system would have thrown the majority in the diet into the hands of the crown, the demand met with a decided resistance from the nobility. With the burghers the peasants were made to sympathise on account of the opprobrium thrown on the landed proprietors, who were thus made responsible for all the obnoxious privileges they were obliged by these unfair proceedings to defend as a part of the great fabric of national liberty. To such a pitch, however, had public opinion in the lowest class been worked up, that on the appearance of the cholera, in 1831, in Hungary, where its ravages were fearful, it was not difficult to make the peasantry in many parts believe, that



the wells were poisoned by the nobles, and that the powders recommended as preventives, and even the chloride of lime, distributed for the purpose of checking the progress of the infection, were means devised for their destruction. The most fearful scenes occurred in various parts. Tyrannical landlords were beaten, abused, and, if report be true, one was even half buried in the field of his idolatry and ploughed through while living. Noble ladies were beaten, dignitaries of the church were insulted and hunted by the infuriated mob, too happy to escape with their lives. In short, if the object desired was to raise a regular insurrection against the nobles, it was completely successful. The position of Europe was, however, not such as to allow the Austrian court to take all the advantage which it might have derived from this state of things. The revolution of July had unsettled every crown, and the adjacent struggle in Poland threatened an uncertain future for the east of Europe. It was thought good policy to conciliate the class which had received so severe a lesson. The interference of the military restored order, and the loyalty of the Hungarians was not made to waver by any odious encroachments on their privileges. An army of 575,000 men, with 1000 pieces of field artillery, horsed and fully equipped, together with an intimate alliance with the court of Berlin, sufficed to give the emperor courage to affect generosity, and thus the palladium of Hungarian liberty was saved for the country and for Europe.

These sad occurrences appear, however, not to have been without their salutary influence upon the nobles, as they opened their eyes to their true position, and showed them the necessity of reconciling their interests without loss of time with those of the classes below them. Direct and active measures were immediately proposed to this end both in the diet and in the county courts of session, and had to encounter the strong opposition of the government, which feared the consolidation of the national power by the union of the two most numerous classes. The nobles became impatient, and deputations even appeared on the subject at Vienna, to whom the Emperor Francis is said to have expressed himself in terms that showed a full confidence in his power.

In the meantime the appearance of a remarkable man upon the political stage in Hungary furnished the nobles at once

with a line of action and with a leader who could direct their exertions. This was Count Stephen Szecheny, a man whose independent fortune placed him above the petty objects of ambition presented by a court, and who inherited all the courage of his order, with an unusual share of perseverance and talent. His penetrating glance showed him at once the weak side of his country and the greatness of the task which awaited it. It would take up too much space to detail the progress of his career in reducing the scattered elements of the social system in Hungary into classes, that unconsciously arose out of the chaos that covered the land at the summons of his genius. The unpretending school of horse-races and reading-clubs gave consistency to the various ranks of the inhabitants of towns and counties. Man met his fellow man in a common point of interest, and soon found that they could agree upon others of more vital importance. In the tumult of elections and amidst contrariety of interests, he taught the Hungarians to distinguish and hold fast to the prominent landmarks of political warfare as beacons to direct their course. But his influence was no less efficacious in fearlessly exposing the condition of the order to which he belonged. Entering into the details of domestic and social life, he explained (for the first time in his native language) the true basis of credit, showing that it was infinitely useful as a means of gaining wealth, but dangerous and degrading when only used to foster unthrift and prodigality. The true sphere of action of the nobleman of the present day he has not less ingeniously pointed out, while he sought to rescue the polish of the mind and of the manners from the contempt of those who imagined that cunning was only to be combated by brutal force, and that calculation and knowledge were but the tools of the insidious and the weak.

The establishment of the steam navigation upon the Danube is mainly his work, and is one for which the government is now not less grateful to him than his own country. But Hungary, if we read her destinies aright, will one day remember with still greater pride and gratitude the moment, when, in the assembly of her worthiest sons, who met to debate on the means of founding a national institute for the cultivation of the language and the encouragement of learning

amongst the Magyars, he was asked what sum he would subscribe, and answered—one year's income\*.

The necessity for such a foundation will appear strange when the reader is told that the university of Pesth is one of the most splendidly endowed establishments of Europe. Its territorial possessions rank, perhaps, only second to those of the hospital of Spirito Santo in Rome. But it is altogether in the hands of the catholic clergy, and under their guidance and the control which the government has over them, it would be useless to expect from this quarter any favour for a national movement towards liberty and learning. The very endowments of this learned foundation have long proved an impediment towards its regeneration. The whole management of these lands, the way in which they are let, and the disposal of the revenue (much reduced in consequence), we have heard described as one immense job, scarcely to be rivalled by the jobbery of nations better known to us. Thus the loss of advantages withheld from the rising generation is aggravated by the bad effects which such distorted means produce upon those of riper years.

Hungary possesses many other well-endowed public seminaries, lycea and colleges at Pressburg, Kashau, Gross Wardein, Erlau, Raab and Agram for Catholics; Carlowitz for Greeks; Kesmark for Lutherans; Debreczin, Patak, and Papa for Calvinists; besides the celebrated mining school at Schemnitz, and the private foundations of the Archduke Charles at Altenburg, and of Count Festetics at Kesthely, in which agriculture is taught practically and theoretically. Correct returns are, however, only made of the Protestant Lutheran schools, which, according to the 'Schematismus' of 1838, were frequented by the youth of a population of 744,364 souls. The author of this interesting little survey boasts, in his preface, that these schools are more regularly and more numerous frequented by the youth of this confession in Hungary than is the case in some of the most polished countries of the west, as, for instance, in England or in France. It is much to be regretted that no similar account of the Calvinist schools has been published, as the professors of this confes-

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\* 60,000 florins, = 6000*l*.

sion are more numerous, amounting to upwards of two millions of souls in Hungary, Transylvania and the military frontier provinces. The total number of Lutherans in the same provinces is said to exceed one million. The language of the congregation, whether German, Slavonic, or Hungarian, is of course the language of the school, or, if there are more than one in a place, they teach in different languages. In the higher schools Latin and Hungarian form the fundamental tongues. German is, however, of course taught, and Slavonian follows, if the district be inhabited by Slavonians. In a country where the vernacular dialects are so numerous and so various, it will easily be conceived that Latin is useful as a *lingua franca*, and indeed it is not unusual to hear the conversation at a provincial *table d'hôte* carried on in this tongue. The necessity for cultivating this language has perhaps induced too great a neglect of the Greek.

Although the conviction that a national supremacy can alone securely rest upon the basis of moral superiority has long been entertained by enlightened individuals in Hungary, yet it has only of late years become a generally received principle of action in all classes of the nation. The Magyars, ardent, enterprising and persevering, were the first to seize upon the importance of having their language recognised as the national dialect; and although in point of numbers in the minority, yet they possessed influence, as landlords and patrons having the command of money, which Slovacks, Wallachians and Ruthenes could not openly cope with. The Slovacks possess a powerful support in their clergy, on which body the regenerating principle that has emanated from Bohemia has had the most marked effect. But the most formidable opposition to the acknowledgement of Magyar influence has been raised in Croatia, where the landed interest is altogether Slavonian, or, as it has there been named, since the growth of party spirit rendered it desirable to extend the field of contest, Illyrian. This contest between Slavonism and Magyarism, ostensibly one of dictionaries and grammars, but in reality of deeply penetrating organic principles, is a rock in the course of the nation to the grand harbour of peaceful independent development; but we must hope that it will only serve to exercise the vigilance of the navigators, and not prove the cause

of shipwreck to the noble vessel launched upon so glorious a voyage. The arguments of the Magyars are strong from one point of view. They say, "We alone have preserved you a freedom which is not a beggarly gift from the throne, that only renders the receiver, in the estimation of the donor, an object of contempt. Our freedom is derived from our ancestors by a clearer and better title even than that divine right by which Germans, Bohemians and Illyrians are made to crouch and kiss the rod. If you destroy even our supremacy, you annihilate the only claim you possess to these privileges, for neither as Germans nor as Slavonians can you pretend to stand out from the rest of the empire as an exceptional land, with exclusive rights, privileges and laws." To the Slovak peasant, however, who has not yet felt the immediate effect of these public institutions in his narrow household sphere, this strain of argument, however true, must prove unconvincing. The Slovak or Illyrian clergyman, who sees the efforts made to supersede him with his flock, and that these efforts often openly tend to bias the stream of patronage in favour of family or parasites' claims, and who moreover, if a Catholic, suspects in them a protestant tendency, openly denounces them as hypocritical and untrue. The government has mostly sided openly or covertly with the latter party, and, by means of its patronage over the wealthy benefices of the church, has long been able to effect a division in the Magyar camp itself; for even the wealthiest dependents on the imperial favour know that they are not judged by their thoughts, but by the slightest indication of a wish to give their thoughts either word or action, and the majority of the families of Magnates are Catholics, and consequently aspirants to this sphere of promotion. The primacy is vested in the archbishopric of Gran, the emoluments of which are estimated in money at 36,000*l.* per annum; while the territorial rights and immunities, together with the patronage, cause the see to be valued by some at nearly 100,000*l.* per annum. If we compare this remuneration, according to the difference in the value of money, with the richest endowments of the west of Europe, it will be found by far to exceed them. Four archbishops, three Roman Catholic, with sixteen bishoprics, and one Greek with six

bishoprics, and twenty-five cathedral chapters, counting three hundred and forty canons' and prebendaries' stalls, besides the priorships of two hundred and nine monasteries and twelve convents, form the mundane attractions of the churches of Hungary, which have the care of the souls of about seven millions of inhabitants. Against this powerful influence, represented in full force in the chamber of the Magnates, and supported with all the weight of court authority and intrigue, the two and a half millions of Protestants, under the modest guidance of the superintendents, have to carry on an unequal contest.

But here again we must, in charity to such of their fellow-creedsmen as might be tempted to fly to their aid, and convey to them the boon of a titled hierarchy, even *in partibus*, regardless of the opposition of diplomatic notes, or the still more formidable vicinity of Munkacz\*, endeavour to give some idea of the nature of the Protestant church, which has for centuries maintained itself in these remote regions, not without frequent appeals to the sword. The reformed church in Hungary may be said to be of older date than what is called the reformation of Luther, and was introduced into the northern parts amongst the Slavonian inhabitants by the persecuted Hussites of Bohemia and Moravia. The free exercise of the reformed worship was formally granted by Rudolph II. in 1606, was confirmed in 1645, and was secured by the celebrated edict of toleration of Joseph II. at the close of the last century. This edict is the Magna Charta of the Protestants in Austria; the treaty of Vienna extending literally only to the provinces included in the Germanic federation. In the war of thirty years which was carried on in Germany and Bohemia for independence by the Protestants, who vain hoped that the circumstance of their choosing the son-in-law of James I. as their chief would ensure them the aid of England, a little sympathy at Canterbury would have been of some use. But the school from which Archbishop Laud emanated probably found that it had nothing in common with men who doubted the divine right of episcopacy, and the continental Protestants were abandoned to their fate. The results of the victory in Bohemia

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\* The lodging provided for Ypeilanti when he sought the hospitality of Austria.

obtained by the ferocious Ferdinand II., we have already had occasion to notice. The reaction which ensued extended in some measure into Hungary and Transylvania, where the Protestants, in their alarm and dire exigency, are said to have even courted the alliance of Turkey rather than surrender their highly prized freedom of conscience. On the strength of their own resources, therefore, have they struggled through the period when they would probably, on any terms, have closed an alliance with sister churches, and when they might have even willingly submitted to dictation from one powerful enough to rescue them. They now stand in healthy but unpretending bloom, the main diffusers of intelligence and of the love of freedom to their country, and nothing short of the extirpation of Hungarian nationality can overthrow them.

The nature of a superintendent's duties in these Protestant churches may be inferred from some of the details furnished by the Lutheran 'Schematismus' before mentioned. The presbytery of the Hegyalla in the district of Tokay contains one Slavonic, two Magyar-Slavonian, six German-Magyar-Slavonian, one Magyar, and one Magyar-German parish of the Lutheran confession. In this manner every presbytery in Hungary is divided, and the arrangements are all of a practical nature (unless they were such, the Protestants would be utterly unable here to keep their ground), so that the indispensable qualification for episcopal functions is a knowledge of five languages, for the acquiring of which no university out of Hungary possesses any regular means\*. Yet we trust that our assertion will meet credit when we state, that the condition of the Protestant churches and schools, both in respect to flocks and teachers, is far more satisfactory than those under the guidance of the highly remunerated hierarchy which we have described above.

No unworthy motive will, we hope, be ascribed to these remarks, the correctness of which is open to verification. We are no friends to a sweeping humiliation of church power, but it is clear that rank and wealth, if they often give stability to a religious community, are as often encumbrances in the way

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\* An ardent proselyte-maker would have to qualify himself for preaching to the Ruthenian Slavonians and the Wallachians of the Greek persuasion, scattered through the villages of the district beyond the Theiss.

of its internal discipline. In Austria, as well as in Germany, there cannot remain a doubt in the mind of the observant traveller as to the superiority (*cæteris paribus*) of the Protestant over the Catholic communities. While too we have sought to point out the difficulties which even Senior Optimi and Wranglers at Oxford and Cambridge would have to contend with, if they condescended to patronise these distant fellow-believers in a direct manner, it is clear that some knowledge of the circumstances in which the latter stand will be useful in enabling the former to lend such countenance as alone can be efficacious in a literary, or, on emergencies, even in a diplomatic capacity, and which will lead to the more desirable results, that it can give the government no just cause of umbrage.

There are people who, in matters of religious organization, are not much further advanced than those miners, who, as we observed some pages back, hold rather with the alchemist than with the political economist.

We regret that the circumstances already described as impeding the collection of correct statistical returns in Hungary render it impossible for us to give an illustration of the state of the people by an appeal to numbers, such as we have been able to apply to our description of the other provinces. Hungary stands on the lists with the other provinces, but we have explained why all the figures relating to the population and productions of the country are entirely devoid of authenticity. Transylvania is something better known, as the small extent of the territory has made it easy to survey. Of the population, which is nominally subdivided into Hungarians (Magyars and Szeklers) and Saxons, more than one-third, or nearly 700,000, are Wallachians, professing the Greek religion, and in the lowest state of cultivation. The Protestants of both confessions are estimated at 500,000, and include a large proportion of the Magyars as well as the Saxons settled in the southern districts. The number of 800,000 Catholics and United Greeks is probably overrated. This country is very mountainous, and has two-thirds of its surface covered with valuable but mostly neglected forests. The highest summits in the southern parts have never been accurately measured, the rich gold- and salt-mines of the northern and midland parts



having absorbed all the attention even of naturalists. The country is altogether kept back from the want of a communication with the sea, although it has available water connections with the Theiss and the Danube, and the salt of Soovar finds its way by these channels both up to Pressburg and to the Julian Alps.

The military frontier brings us back to Hungary, to which country it properly belongs, being a long strip of land of varying breadth, stretching along the frontier of Wallachia and the northern banks of the Danube and the Save to the Adriatic, and inhabited by colonists, who hold their land on the tenure of military service. Originally the cordon thus drawn was of the highest importance to secure the empire and even Europe against the incursions of the Turks and the progress of the plague, and it proved in both cases effectual. Since of late years both of these once-dreaded calamities have lost their formidable character, it has become a matter of discussion whether the fine lands thus occupied by unproductive colonists might not be turned to better account, if allowed to enter into competition with the adjacent countries. The main thoroughfare from Hungary to the Adriatic Sea passes through this district in its whole length; the question therefore which has arisen, as to the mode in which this district is to be managed in future, is one of vital importance to the fine lands which are only accessible through it. But this point we must reserve to a future opportunity to elucidate. We confine ourselves here to the physical condition of the inhabitants.

The narrow strip of land which forms this province occupies for a length of 450 miles the northern banks of the Danube and the Save, where the soil is the richest in Europe. This portion of the province lies between the 45th and 46th degrees of north latitude; that is to say, under the same parallels with Lombardy and Piedmont. The slope of the hills presents everywhere a southern aspect, and the description of agriculture which is most successful in northern Italy has been found to answer perfectly in this province. The wines of Cartowitz are finer than any of the north of Italy; rice and even cotton have been grown with partial success. The extreme west and the eastern extremity of the province occupy respectively the ruder summits of the lower Carpathians and

of the Julian Alps, and enjoy few of the advantages for agriculture here described; but other resources arise from the passage through them of the great roads leading on one side to the Adriatic and on the other to the Black Sea. The splendid portion of the province situated in the valleys of the Save and the Danube has an extent of 400 Austrian square miles, or one-eighth more than the province of Lombardy. The population in 1837 amounted to 747,290, or about 85 per English square mile. The mountainous districts, containing 283 Austrian square miles, counted 422,863 inhabitants, or not much more than 70 to the English square mile. The increase of population in these favoured districts has been most rapid, notwithstanding the very discouraging social and domestic arrangements attending its organization. The peasant in whose name a house is registered is looked upon as the head of a family, who are bound to furnish, maintain and partly to equip as soldiers, as many of the male population as are required by the war-office. One portion is always on active service on the cordon, and each man receives on this duty twelve fl. (1*l.* 4*s.*) per annum as pay. His family, if in need of it, can demand the aid of their neighbours to cultivate his land in his absence. These sentinels, which form an uninterrupted line of watch along the Turkish frontier, are not chosen from the nearest houses, lest they should in time be tampered with, but are irregularly ordered upon duty as the staff thinks fit. A family can even be translated from one house to another, at the command of the general. No lands change owners, or are even subjected to a different species of cultivation, without the sanction of the officers. The regiments are liable to be called out to foreign service at the option of the emperor, but then they receive pay and equipments like the regiments of the line. The household regiment is patriarchal; the oldest male is senior in the house, and from him and his wife the inmates, if dissatisfied, can only appeal to the magisterial authority of the officers. The officers have the monopoly of intelligence, for one of the laws forbids any boy in the province to study at a grammar-school or university, unless destined for the church. All improvements in farming, no less than the drill and military education of the people, proceed from the officers, and every village is a kind of scat-

tered barrack. In the towns strangers obtain the permission of the staff to settle, and the mercantile class is gradually growing into importance; but the reduced condition of trade may be inferred from the circumstance, that Semlin, situated opposite to Belgrade, at the confluence of the Save with the Danube, counts, with its garrison, only 10,000 inhabitants; while Panczowa, on the Danube, in the fertile district of the Banat, has but 11,143, and Carlstadt, at the head of the navigation of the Save and Culpá, but 6500 inhabitants.

When it is considered that hospitals are an indispensable part of military arrangements, and that even extremes of distress arising from the vicissitudes of the seasons are provided against, it will be found natural that, with such advantages of soil and climate, the population returns of this province should show a high state of physical prosperity. Accordingly we find the births as 1 in 22 of the population, being equal to the return for Galicia and the most favourable return of the empire. The Banat district shows 1 birth in 20; the valley of the Save in Slavonia, 1 in 21; in the Warasdin district, 1 in 18; the mountainous tracts, 1 birth in 24 of the population. The return for the valley of the Save is the most favourable in Europe. A remarkable circumstance is the greater proportion of male births over the females, the average of the province showing 100 girls to 107 boys, from which the different districts do not much vary.

The abundance of food in the fertile parts induces early marriages, the result of which is both an unusually large proportion of marriages in the year and a small proportion of illegitimate births. The return of the latter is (for 1839) as 1 illegitimate to 88 legitimate; the marriages (for 1837) show the remarkably large proportion of 1 in  $92\frac{1}{10}$  of the population.

The mortality in this province is however likewise the greatest in the empire, amounting in 1837 to  $3\frac{3}{10}$  per cent., and in 1839 to 4 per cent. of the population, in which respect it has some analogy with Lombardy, which has a proportion of 3 per cent., and far exceeds Galicia, which counts but  $2\frac{7}{10}$  per cent. This great mortality, together with the fact that the proportion of suicides and murders is not inconsiderable (the number of violent deaths amounted in 1839 to 1 in 130

of the total number), allow us to draw less favourable conclusions as to the working of a social system, which is supported by many external advantages. We must not forget to remark, that the great proportionate mortality is not to be attributed to the climate, for it is not observed in the first period of life, but occurs chiefly between the fourth and twentieth years, in which interval the mortality is greatest in Galicia, and perhaps in both provinces is to be ascribed to self-neglect and the use of ardent spirits.

A large portion of Hungary possesses advantages in point of soil and climate in no way inferior to the finest part of the military frontier. The most striking proof of this fact is, that the luscious Tokay wine is produced almost in the north of Hungary; and the slopes of the hills, which present favourable sites between the Hegyalla and the Turkish frontier, yield nearly every flavour and quality of wine, as chance or more or less industry on the part of the owner directs. The main article of produce is however grain, especially wheat, that article so indispensable, but occasionally so worthless where carriage is difficult or expensive. Wool has in a great measure of late drawn more attention than grain, and in the moist and heavy soils the finest hemp and flax, and tobacco of superior flavour in the sandy districts, richly reward the cultivator when sought by foreign consumers.

The military frontier, as well as the lowlands of Hungary, labour under a serious disadvantage, which the dense population and regulated cultivation of Lombardy have in a great measure banished. The fever which arises from malaria is very common on the banks of rivers and of lakes, and the immense size of the Hungarian rivers is such as to defy human powers to regulate and confine their waters in the present state of the population.

In every respect Lombardy holds out to these highly favored lands the picture of what they may attain by a judicious application of their resources. In that lovely land, where art has so well acted the handmaid to nature, a school of agriculture has arisen from the practical sense of the inhabitants, which a stranger cannot regard without admiration. The wonderful amount of produce drawn there from the soil by a skilful use of two accessories, in which nature has been pro-

digal—sunshine and water—must appear incredible to the farmers of less favoured districts. The skill and diligence by which the quality of the productions intended for exportation is raised to the highest pitch of perfection, is scarcely more admirable than the division of labour which enables so much to be achieved with simple means. To illustrate partly the remarkable division of labour in agriculture, it will suffice to allude to the numerous “*periti*,” without consulting one of whom no man thinks of laying out a farm. The land, which is only of the same value with the water, by means of which its produce is doubled, has its engineers, who level fields and plan the channels for irrigation; while the water, which, if needful, must be brought from a distance, or if superabundant, must be carried off and made available elsewhere, employs another set of “*ingegneri*.” The peculiar branch of cultivation suited to the soil, aspect, abundance or scarcity of water, etc., is theoretically demonstrated before it is practically attempted, and nowhere is science so evidently sought as a guide by people of a highly practical disposition. This desire to turn the advantages bestowed by nature to account with restless activity, is a valuable legacy bequeathed from their free and enterprising ancestors. It is handed down by that species of family education which schools must fail to impart, and is accompanied by the useful, nay invaluable, habits of temperance and economy. By the exercise of these qualities the Lombards have, under many disadvantages, accumulated a large capital, and this small province possesses indisputably a greater command of means than any other in the empire.

It is impossible to observe in this portion of the empire the attention paid by the inhabitants to the true sources of wealth, the number and excellent plan of the canals, the good state of the roads, the solid style of building, the enclosure of the fields, and the disposition to find occupation in useful arts, instead of pressing to seek places under the government, without the conviction that the development of the social condition of this province is a natural one, and has been for a long period in progress. The province of Venice, composed of the small territory formerly belonging to that oligarchy, with the seigniorial possessions finally reduced under its sway, presents at the present day a marked and interesting contrast with Lom-

bardy, which (with the exception of the duchy of Mantua, which in every respect differs from the rest of the province) is formed of an agglomeration of ancient republics. On passing the Adige the traveller takes leave of the cultivation whose refinement lends such value to the soil; and in proportion as the Parmesan and Strachino cheeses lose their flavour, the silk becomes less abundant and of inferior quality, and the irrigated meadows disappear; malaria and its accompanying diseases increase. Larger and less carefully cultivated possessions are more frequent, and all the symptoms of feudal institutions can be recognised in the Venetian province; so true is it that the sins of the fathers are visited upon the children. This portion of Italy and Piedmont have derived the greatest advantage from the innovations in the municipal laws introduced by the French. The freedom of internal trade and competition established by the substitution of the patent system for that of guilds, has been of equal utility with our own neglect of corporation forms in towns of recent formation in England, and the Italian tradesmen are by far the best workmen and the most industrious traders in the empire. That in the possession of such solid advantages a population already dense should be found still to be on the increase, in a proportion almost equal to the rich but thinly peopled districts of Hungary and Galicia, will occasion as little surprise as that they should sigh for the acquisition of that political emancipation which lends vigour both to the body and the mind, and to which they well know that they are indebted for the ancient origin of their prosperity.

Of a surface of 3,770,000 jochs in Lombardy, about  $\frac{2}{3}$ ths are uncultivated,  $\frac{1}{3}$ th is forest land, and 2,578,813 jochs nearly suffice to support a population of 2,547,976 souls, together with the cattle, which yield so much produce for exportation.

The population of Venice is 2,168,553; the cultivated land 2,594,309 jochs; the forests occupy but about  $\frac{1}{10}$ th of the superficies; and  $\frac{1}{4}$ th of the province is uncultivated. The density of population of Lombardy exceeded 300 on the English square mile; that of Venice in 1839 was about 250 on the same space.

With this dense population it is remarkable that these provinces rank next to Galicia in point of fecundity, the births

in 1837 having been as 1 in 23 to 24 of the population for Lombardy, and 1 in 24 for Venice.

The custom of marrying early, which in these provinces is encouraged by a confidence in the success of enterprise and industry (the field for the exercise of these qualities is wider than in the other parts of the empire), is evinced by the tables, which show, in the Italian provinces, with a population of 4,680,871 souls, 11,981 males and 24,906 females married before attaining their twenty-fourth year. The number of males in Galicia exceeds this, being 18,775 ; but in Bohemia the number falls short of the Italian provinces, showing but 8582 who were married before the age of twenty-four. The proportion of illegitimate to legitimate births is also remarkably small, although perhaps it is unfair to draw any strict conclusion from it respecting the superior morality of the inhabitants. It is remarkable, that in the delegation of Brescia, in which marriages are most frequent, the greatest number of illegitimate children are born ; the proportion being as 1 in 17 to 21 legitimate births ; whereas the average of the provinces gives 1 in 21. The return from the delegation of Milan, according to which 1 illegitimate birth was found amongst 66 legitimate in 1837, and 1 in 467 in 1839, seems to be erroneous. As, however, the disproportion gradually although slowly diminishes from year to year, the effect of a large standing army, and the enforcement, to a certain extent, of celibacy by the regulations of the civil service, appear to become perceptible. Lombardy and Venice were occupied in 1839 by an army of 60,000 men.

In 1837 the mortality in these provinces was in the proportion of 1 in 31 of the inhabitants ; in 1839 for Venice 1 in 32 ; and for Lombardy 1 in 29. The latter year seems to be distinguished by the prevalence of a fatal small-pox. In respect of the ages of the deceased, Italy holds a place above Galicia, and far above Bohemia, for the first period, from the birth to the completion of the first year ; the numbers in this period being for 1839 in Lombardy and Venice 59,047, for Galicia 43,567, and for Bohemia only 17,302 ; but the three years of which the mortality is given by M. Becher are all unsatisfactory, on account of the prevalence of epidemics in one or the other of these provinces. The disproportion in the

number of suicides is remarkable; Galicia showing 192, Bohemia 106, while Lombardy and Venice together had but 89, in the year 1839. The proportion of murdered was, however, seriously against Italy. Lombardy and Venice in that year had 131, Galicia 92, and Bohemia 53 murdered.

The provinces of the Illyrian coast and Dalmatia, well known to the classical student from the celebrated Liburnian villas which covered them under the Roman emperors, as well as from the buildings of Julian and Diocletian, whose remains still fascinate the philosopher and the artist, will demand more consideration on another occasion, when we purpose treating at full of the trade of the empire. The highly favoured peninsula of Istria, neglected and unproductive as Sicily, with which one involuntarily compares it; like Sicily, too, containing deep and spacious harbours, whose value was well known to the ancients; Dalmatia, even richer in ports, which living British pilots have sounded, and on which British engineers have erected works, will then prove worthy of at least as concise a description as the larger and more populous provinces, the state of which we have endeavoured to explain.

We cannot, however, conclude without congratulating ourselves upon the marked change which we have already noticed in the domestic policy of Austria, as rendering our task not only pleasing, but likely to prove productive of benefit to the two mighty empires who stand most in need of each other's aid. Without some relaxation in the jealous secrecy which until lately has enveloped everything relating to Austria, no details could be communicated of sufficient authenticity to warrant merchants in embarking capital, or to encourage adventurers of talent to risk their time and prospects in cultivating so unknown and distant a field. Without a relaxation in some of the restrictions of the police, such as has recently taken place on the Turkish frontier, by the reduction of the time of quarantine to a single day, this field would be only half as valuable as it really is. These two great concessions, which will mark the present reign as one of the most beneficent in the annals of the empire, give room for expectation that the course thus entered upon will not be abandoned, but that other improvements will unhesitatingly



be adopted as soon as their necessity shall be clearly demonstrated.

With regard to the administering hand to which the conduct and execution of these great measures, fraught with the happiness of millions, is entrusted, we may be allowed to remark, how rarely an opportunity is afforded to a minister, whose lot has called upon him to bear the obloquy of one reign, to share in the redeeming course and consequently the fame of the succeeding sovereign. In this, as in every other respect, the statesman who presides over the destinies of Austria may form a marked contrast to a famous and lately deceased rival on the political arena. If of the one it could be said, that intrigue and destruction were the elements which he sought as stepping-stones to a greatness upon which the blessings of no nation hung, we trust that the career of the other will be prolonged until he proves to his countrymen and to history that the evil which he met in his path was not of his seeking, and that what he so ardently strove to preserve out of the wreck of opinions and institutions, he destined for materials wherewith to construct a new and more glorious edifice.

END OF NUMBER XXVII.



# No. I.

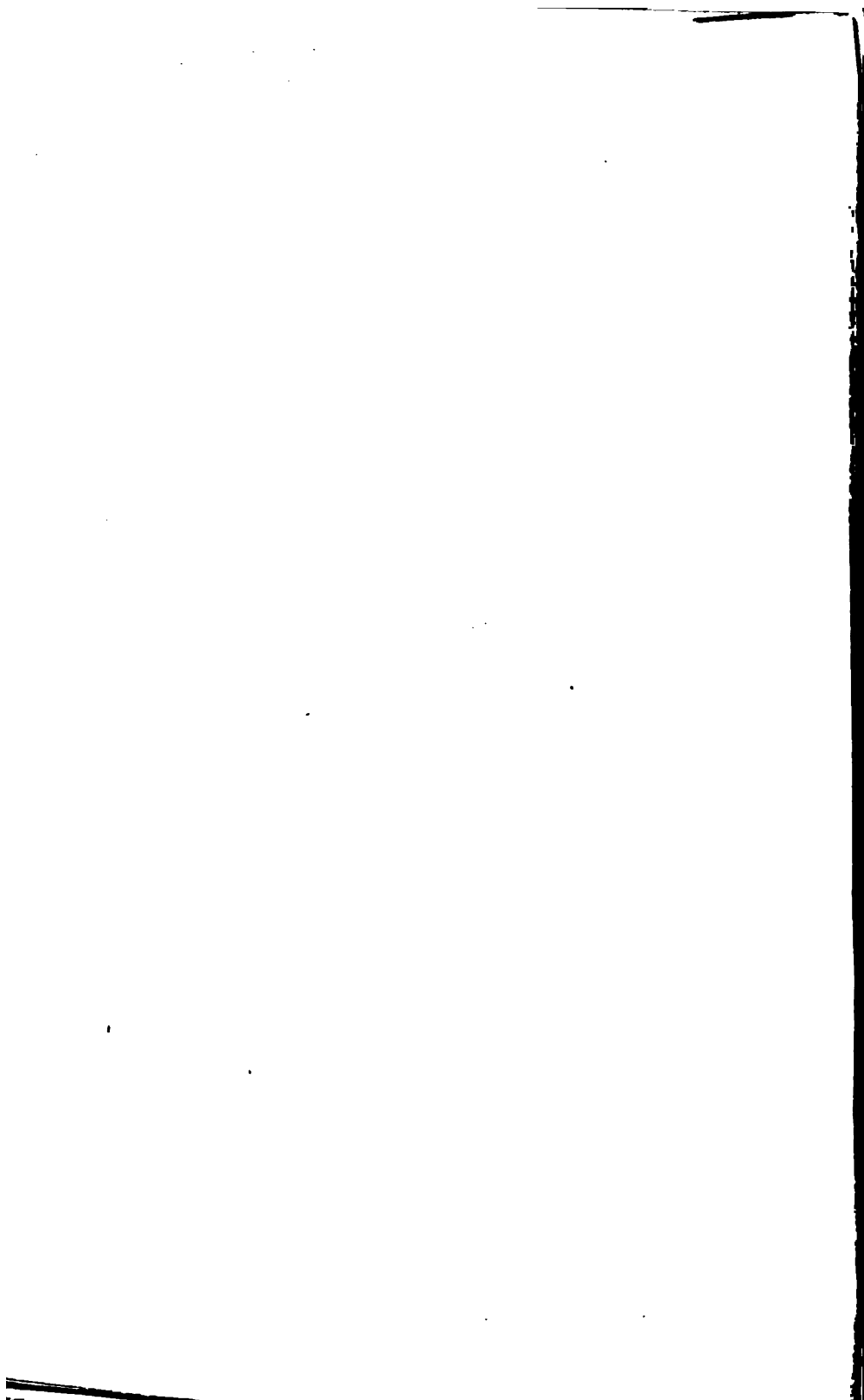
Individuals.	Moravia and Silesia.	Galicia.	Total.
Not liable to service ..	334,329	555,204	2,230,380
In the Landwehr batts	11,608	5,648	40,650
Temporary exempts ..	2,658	2,637	15,180
Liabie to be drawn for			
in their 19th	18,350	39,092	127,570
20	15,619	32,417	99,068
21	12,267	24,143	74,549
22	10,282	21,455	65,867
23	9,342	18,414	59,944
24	7,992	13,745	48,129
25	6,253	13,115	41,442
26	5,617	10,438	36,790
27	4,901	9,391	33,546
28	4,007	7,766	29,416
29	2,714	7,344	21,150
Liabie to be drawn			
"Landwehr" .....	30,820	66,784	227,269
Tot	476,759	827,593	3,150,950

In Italy the period of twenty-fifth year. The "Landwehr" or militia is also

(3.)

## IS CONFESSIONS IN 1

Greeks.		Li
United.	Schismatic.	
536	395	
—	—	
—	2	
183	199	
6	1,850	
—	—	
—	7	
—	—	
077,995	269,327	
693	71,992	
—	—	
58	385	
919,400	1,302,100	
571,400	686,300	
57,887	568,585	
628,158	2,901,142	1,



d).		Cattle.		
1 klafter 216 cub. ft.	1 florin = 2s. English.			
Valuation for the Land-Tax.		Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.
2,665	75,323	5,289	1,565	
265,797	5,989,936	15,671	56,976	80,059
45,898	7,895,663	18,042	108,462	100,606
16,699	12,832,630	23,639	52,890	191,467
45,252	7,799,284	3,885	104,484	115,825
76,311	34,592,836	66,526	324,397	487,957
17,840	3,715,112	{ 308 4,719	198 80,390	182 24,295
57,440	4,198,345	10,044	70,451	42,152
138,910	3,907,260	12,190	76,543	33,212
142,600	3,128,518	13,621	80,792	39,977
330,030	8,219,564	9,604	121,777	124,851
986,820	23,168,799	50,486	430,151	264,669
384,853	6,955,478	{ 784 21,304	1,135 115,599	1 37,520
457,668	3,478,985	5,094	51,966	52,689
433,573	2,740,791	3,180	32,038	21,626
259,338	5,023,490	14,532	70,337	13,032
284,802	4,245,649	7,372	53,359	16,425
820,234	22,444,393	52,266	324,434	141,293
51	19,655	392	426	1
120,925	1,607,431	8,300	52,932	28,432
161,951	2,752,945	6,418	65,252	29,057
149,339	1,709,162	3,850	30,192	30,692
361,709	3,550,432	10,137	70,216	69,771
338,622	2,781,659	9,057	54,039	65,957
700,331	12,421,284	38,154	274,057	223,910



# No. II. (2.)

THE YEAR 1837. (Continue

PAST.					
Population.	Productive surface.			Cattle.	
Deaths.	1 joch = 1½ English acre			Horned cattle.	Sheep.
	Arable, Vine- yards, Gardens, Olive-grounds, Meadows.	Forests.	Woods.		
2,308	11,521	3,587	701	2,358	2,618
5,694	588,573	218,538	240	46,666	311,830
4,350	763,894	95,121	311	44,300	67,178
55					
12,407	963,988	317,246	1,252	93,324	381,626
376	770	.....	181	558	40
2,651	214,710	395,020	699	79,963	53,074
2,037	279,370	429,630	272	47,200	64,553
2,149	274,890	416,810	611	55,258	100,039
2,454	276,560	128,340	909	57,968	76,198
5,360	227,900	292,500	452	56,480	69,170
3,236	92,690	135,740	578	23,606	46,892
2,799	147,440	148,160	879	37,471	22,569
66					
21,128	1,514,330	1,946,200	4581	358,504	432,535
FUTURE.					
4,559	1,292	127	413	580	
8,033	330,480	80,243	503	49,135	135,221
6,713	269,285	165,957	216	40,457	86,450
7,814	295,798	112,950	509	49,299	61,710
6,668	441,482	189,339	894	77,106	37,238
14,129	400,065	212,613	418	81,831	137,025
9,300	379,062	134,486	966	75,237	57,978
9,046	374,869	121,914	620	72,898	108,990
8,284	265,868	161,099	907	59,054	38,897
6,896	260,232	100,596	498	46,959	85,172
10,081	355,014	152,995	456	73,987	40,229
11,433	352,832	161,090	428	63,499	67,092
8,131	377,988	188,533	174	61,103	139,569
8,574	449,911	220,545	631	67,574	106,119
5,851	292,885	96,526	508	37,177	120,999
4,976	250,946	88,448	155	27,220	91,153
7,434	356,385	128,837	630	64,442	78,503
1,241					
139,163	5,454,394	2,316,298	1,926	957,558	1,392,343

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## OR THE YEAR 18

## RAVIA and SILESIA.

Percent of the Population.			Cattle.		
Births.	Deaths.	Arable, in = 20. English.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.
		Arable, in = 20. English.			
1,453	1,279	522,002,474	515	166	560
13,391	10,857	508,700,225	26,948	50,130	193,761
17,386	13,638	413,64,785	28,486	70,972	60,004
10,221	8,404	417,12,255	20,764	42,799	59,280
10,603	8,656	312,26,480	20,036	51,850	153,677
6,829	6,269	375,45,707	5,895	43,739	60,606
5,630	5,194	228,902,516	11,926	31,123	122,324
9,020	7,403	310,608,723	8,430	42,091	74,146
8,298	6,792		13,332	45,436	70,982
244	656				
82,975	69,248	3,118,663,165	136,332	378,306	796,340

## IX. GALICIA.

1	2,807	2,808	23,496,123	25,589	42,827	14,239
7	5,859	4,960		17,488	103,326	50,041
9	15,697	12,399	41,733,489	25,127	73,244	22,660
22	10,627	7,973	41,156,517	17,760	94,300	64,107
28	10,635	8,107	37,967,692	18,423	71,688	31,768
32	12,288	7,737	45,546,026	21,034	73,672	65,565
36	12,768	8,435	46,958,091	43,049	105,285	71,764
44	13,693	9,451	50,836,777	15,917	93,995	28,525
50	12,844	8,074	55,926,417	36,729	102,876	37,114
53	13,361	8,538	48,419,996	40,212	78,871	63,707
56	11,609	7,814	55,206,533	39,746	66,554	78,011
62	10,505	8,212	58,483,904	39,393	58,876	81,522
75	12,249	9,271	52,433,169	33,591	63,690	42,521
98	10,912	8,617	49,03,957	11,279	94,494	36,985
92	10,771	7,769	49,079,183	15,401	89,610	60,682
33	12,382	9,994	48,45,820	16,250	77,066	107,529
75	10,147	7,833	57,19,668	43,018	36,572	109,995
10	9,637	8,390	56,892,235	34,588	45,801	118,519
01	10,251	8,673	88,556,169	26,791	122,769	156,413
00	14,136	7,352				
03	173	1,050				
50	223,351	163,457	9,197,24,421	521,385	1,495,516	1,241,667

## X. DALMATIA.

62	318	283	4,803,562	7,761	45,475	410,379
167	4,656	3,490		5,348	37,683	241,125
062	4,983	3,341	3,866,271	533	3,197	36,354
349	1,650	848	544,772	239	4,830	25,695
195	896	669	149,733			
10	18	109				
845	12,521	8740	8,364,338	13,881	91,185	713,553



## SURVEY FOR THE 1

## LOMBARDO-VENETIAN KING:

Population on an Austrian square mile.	Movement of the Popul				Cattle.		
	Marri- ages.	Births.	ft. D nd l.	1 fl. = 2s. English.  Valuation for the Land-Tax.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.
15,374	1,226	6,435		41,927	3,221	87	34
	3,635	17,412	1	20,592,708	9,155	60,257	1,593
5,558	3,689	12,566	1	14,175,344	6,543	53,163	12,856
7,845	1,829	8,418	1	11,224,515	7,470	26,129	1,508
6,274	2,424	9,920	1	17,303,500	6,553	45,240	6,621
4,661	3,260	13,634	1	16,014,660	7,447	62,585	71,337
7,402	3,707	15,206	1	19,134,249	3,358	66,235	29,778
8,806	1,489	7,015	1	17,706,106	5,403	31,466	521
9,778	2,086	9,042	1	16,706,553	10,233	38,167	1,653
1,575	733	3,551	1	5,398,951	1,179	24,566	41,099
.....	61	86					
6,612	24,149	103,287	8	138,298,513	60,562	407,895	167,000

## LOMBARDO-VENETIAN KING

{ 5772 {	791	3,584		5,469,532	{ 24	357	21
5688	1,570	7,180		8,168,278	8,014	33,946	13,744
3381	3,135	10,627		9,936,925	7,865	34,033	56,563
7875	3,194	14,003		10,419,697	6,979	101,708	66,089
6501	2,629	12,170	1	9,885,706	11,705	38,497	47,365
6255	3,187	13,284	1	6,376,158	7,541	54,342	90,790
7412	2,255	10,882		7,007,748	6,000	48,662	61,010
2443	1,302	6,744		2,678,453	5,211	27,512	11,303
.....	1,129	5,901			1,209	30,725	70,113
	69	138					
5130	19,261	84,513	6	59,542,317	54,548	369,782	416,998

921  
494  
334  
522  
339  
77  
37  
35  
34  
34  
35  
63  
66  
83  
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8  
88  
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79  
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12

YE. (Continued.)

No.	Productive surface.			Cattle.		
	1 joch = 1½ English acre.			No.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.
	Arable land.	Vineyards.	Meadows.			
21	24,093	412	6,853	12	10,172	6,741
199	56,706	2,428	29,145	17	19,921	27,513
336	32,695	1,980	11,359	31	11,527	12,540
527	36,012	531	23,009	10	16,333	27,583
395	51,481	1,023	30,930	12	17,111	18,846
771	38,027	182	10,742	16	5,672	7,196
373	37,731	145	20,982	73	11,779	6,690
856	26,904	731	20,865	59	29,199	19,801
393	19,046	893	10,287	57	5,912	1,245
350	10,581	846	6,088	06	4,743	1,847
762	7,569	.....	5,139	90	8,983	2,777
366	15,332	55	6,851	20	9,658	4,734
031	16,255	.....	6,487	91	13,586	7,128
580	364,432	9,236	194,737	24	164,596	144,641
387	28,996	29	7,222	08	7,633	2,707
776	30,753	637	9,751	06	6,606	6,449
595	13,363	.....	2,272	22	7,287	2,173
558	3,439	.....	1,279	07	4,827	5,034
408	4,773	179	1,356	31	1,327	1,620
324	81,324	845	21,880	74	27,680	17,983
181	42,313	2,533	22,627	29	25,256	34,023
523	13,567	647	7,345	55	5,931	2,976
361	25,233	2,058	13,041	37	7,676	6,485
556	19,757	656	9,175	11	12,623	5,386
157	25,997	4	7,101	70	10,940	7,485
259	9,321	680	4,975	96	2,392	2,391
157	11,159	762	4,148	75	2,952	1,023
238	12,565	42	4,183	59	5,980	3,658
137	10,442	383	3,453	22	3,446	4,562
158	55,051	.....	28,415	97	24,794	6,349
323	14,238	582	12,699	35	11,070	2,745
650	239,643	8,347	117,162	26	113,062	77,083
754	.....	.....	.....	.	.....	.....
108	685,399	18,428	333,779	24	305,338	239,707



ued.)

ears, from 1828 to 1837.

DEATHS.															
Year.	Sex.		Kind	Kind of death.										Total.	
	Males.	Fe- males.		Legiti- mate.	From 40 to 60 years.	Above 60 years.	Natural deaths.			Violent deaths.					
							Common.	Epi- demic disease.	Small pox.	Suicide.	Hydro- phobia.	Mur- dered.	Acci- dental.		Exe- cuted.
1828	7021	6768	8113	2509	1666	13,043	4	230	46	...	1	92	...	13,416	
1829	6776	6515	7817	2087	2323	13,338	.....	341	43	...	1	106	...	13,829	
1830	6921	6513	8025	2072	2216	13,512	.....	230	42	...	3	139	...	13,926	
1831	6858	6656	7908	2768	2771	13,938	1871	267	54	...	2	69	...	16,201	
1832	6553	6287	7466	3218	2937	12,655	4400	135	39	...	1	58	1	17,288	
1833	7489	6998	8006	2037	2052	14,342	.....	366	40	...	...	46	...	14,794	
1834	7687	7449	8260	1935	2000	13,563	.....	292	18	...	2	79	...	13,954	
1835	7445	7254	8114	2186	2348	14,243	.....	452	23	1	4	54	...	14,797	
1836	7699	7203	8079	3188	3110	16,232	3000	43	49	...	4	75	...	19,403	
1837	7926	7665	8461	2205	2445	16,024	.....	64	57	...	...	69	...	16,214	
Total	72,375	69,308	80,349	24,205	23,868	140,890	9275	2420	411	1	18	787	1	153,822	
1828	372	386	541	144	179	809	.....	.....	...	...	...	5	...	814	
1829	374	367	503	161	164	848	.....	12	2	...	...	4	...	866	
1830	356	358	531	123	196	775	.....	.....	...	...	1	5	...	781	
1831	327	360	503	160	205	884	.....	.....	...	...	...	11	...	895	
1832	344	359	515	152	204	850	.....	1	...	...	1	15	...	867	
1833	383	381	511	145	221	841	.....	1	...	...	...	13	...	855	
1834	392	398	520	167	206	991	.....	8	...	...	...	7	...	1006	
1835	368	387	491	143	210	808	.....	.....	1	...	...	2	...	811	
1836	418	382	495	165	200	931	.....	.....	...	...	...	...	...	931	
1837	418	387	515	206	245	1079	.....	.....	...	...	...	5	...	1084	
Total	3752	3765	5125	1566	2030	8816	.....	23	3	...	2	67	...	8910	
1828	507	492	827	253	368	1289	162	.....	3	...	...	2	...	1456	
1829	529	500	830	189	363	1141	.....	.....	1	...	...	1	...	1143	
1830	545	535	780	159	335	1099	8	2	1	...	...	...	...	1110	
1831	561	575	837	178	350	1057	6	16	...	...	...	...	...	1079	
1832	854	777	750	253	471	1473	9	39	1	...	1	7	...	1530	
1833	977	978	794	242	399	1264	.....	3	3	...	...	3	...	1273	
1834	992	1027	783	258	391	1552	.....	11	1	...	1	3	...	1568	
1835	1060	952	754	267	487	1505	.....	3	3	...	4	10	...	1525	
1836	989	1014	738	274	412	1324	.....	8	7	...	2	2	...	1343	
1837	1053	1038	785	262	444	1492	.....	.....	1	...	...	5	...	1498	
Total	8067	7888	7878	2335	4020	13,196	185	82	21	...	8	33	...	13,525	





tinued.)

from 1828 to 1837. (Continued.)

DEATHS.														
Year.	Sex.					Kind of death.								Total.
	Males.	Fe- males.	From 10 to 40 yrs.	From 40 to 60 years.	Above 60 years.	Natural deaths.			Violent deaths.					
						Com- mon.	Epidem- ic disease.	Small pox.	Sui- cide.	Hydro- phobia.	Mur- dered.	Acci- dental.	Exe- cuted.	
1828	250	245	59	89	112	450	...	...	...	...	...	5	...	455
1829	248	263	77	74	119	428	...	...	1	...	...	6	1	436
1830	241	207	65	81	106	414	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	415
1831	273	228	74	69	109	433	4	5	...	...	...	4	...	446
1832	227	224	87	76	127	500	...	22	1	...	...	7	...	530
1833	250	261	93	91	122	530	...	5	1	...	...	1	...	537
1834	244	225	68	62	125	447	...	6	...	...	...	...	...	453
1835	251	234	82	82	105	483	...	...	1	...	...	1	...	485
1836	244	240	54	211	220	466	330	...	...	...	...	2	...	818
1837	278	267	74	74	122	536	...	5	...	...	...	1	...	542
Total	2506	2394	43	909	1267	4707	334	43	4	...	...	28	1	5117
1828	1341	1322	03	315	268	1965	...	15	11	...	1	14	3	2009
1829	1299	1259	75	325	306	1924	...	9	1	...	1	18	...	1953
1830	1355	1279	73	323	309	1962	...	2	...	...	...	16	...	1980
1831	1285	1337	58	297	283	2109	5	4	1	...	1	15	...	2135
1832	1410	1259	04	294	356	2259	3	25	1	...	5	9	...	2302
1833	1470	1451	94	287	340	2094	...	21	1	...	...	4	...	2120
1834	1859	1108	96	283	292	2175	...	8	4	...	6	21	...	2214
1835	1526	1418	89	283	342	2474	...	68	3	...	...	14	...	2559
1836	1603	1529	39	887	703	2519	1699	6	1	...	...	20	...	4245
1837	1515	1541	05	298	388	2274	...	2	2	...	3	27	...	2308
Total	14,663	13,503	236	3592	3607	21,755	1707	160	25	...	17	158	3	23,825
1828	155	134	45	43	95	283	...	...	2	...	...	...	...	285
1829	146	150	47	56	102	332	...	...	2	...	...	2	...	336
1830	157	109	42	52	95	302	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	303
1831	163	129	51	54	95	314	...	9	2	...	...	3	...	328
1832	143	129	58	54	111	322	...	3	...	...	...	4	...	329
1833	136	154	61	73	88	321	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	321
1834	167	140	56	47	121	410	...	...	1	...	...	2	...	413
1835	168	133	70	67	91	368	3	1	...	...	...	2	...	374
1836	169	154	74	55	139	381	...	1	...	...	...	2	...	384
1837	154	160	58	71	105	370	...	3	...	...	...	3	...	376
Total	1558	1392	62	542	1042	3403	3	17	7	...	...	19	...	3449



s, from 1828 to 1837.

DEATHS.													
Year.	Sex.		Kind of death.			Kind of death.							
	Males.	Females.	Legitimate.	From 10 to 60 years.	Above 60 years.	Natural deaths.			Violent deaths.				
						Common.	Epidemic disease.	Small Pox.	Sulphide.	Hydrophobia.	Murdered.	Accidental.	Executed.
1828	2022	1933	2551	17	684	4046	...	15	6	...	1	26	2
1829	1965	1790	2390	18	783	3852	...	...	5	...	...	29	...
1830	1992	1935	2490	46	818	3830	...	20	12	1	...	31	...
1831	2106	1984	2487	35	706	3410	...	18	8	...	...	23	...
1832	2044	2000	2377	69	1121	3602	1545	28	7	...	4	35	1
1833	2245	2120	2609	96	714	3872	...	6	7	1	...	24	...
1834	2226	2138	2612	49	642	3730	...	11	6	...	...	28	1
1835	2215	2140	2568	48	744	3911	...	2	9	...	...	22	...
1836	2296	2152	2640	56	1073	4581	891	4	13	...	1	24	...
1837	2444	2199	2645	17	814	4521	...	5	10	...	...	23	...
Total	21,555	20,391	25,369	51	8099	39,355	2436	109	83	2	6	265	4
1828	715	706	888	52	216	1190	...	...	4	...	...	26	2
1829	728	647	868	51	212	1129	...	2	2	...	...	15	...
1830	714	711	877	48	257	1138	...	...	2	...	...	11	...
1831	705	701	859	06	284	1191	110	1	...	...	1	15	...
1832	664	613	770	99	340	1407	384	...	1	...	...	21	...
1833	775	765	886	69	156	1199	...	4	6	...	...	18	...
1834	698	701	780	15	175	1181	...	8	2	...	...	19	2
1835	745	723	805	00	247	1389	...	18	2	...	...	18	...
1836	692	594	734	07	297	1440	342	7	1	...	...	6	1
1837	738	715	880	82	213	1265	...	...	6	...	...	8	...
Total	7194	6906	8347	29	2497	12,529	836	40	26	...	1	157	5
1828	2404	1990	3143	564	646	4829	88	15	6	...	2	18	...
1829	1903	1641	2387	553	484	3461	55	5	8	...	...	24	...
1830	1758	1663	2332	844	741	4686	218	2	5	...	1	15	...
1831	1492	1247	1873	330	1532	5662	3989	225	6	...	1	53	...
1832	1345	1093	1509	423	363	2152	39	19	3	...	1	15	...
1833	1438	1212	1488	12	325	2398	21	10	5	...	2	16	...
1834	1488	1227	1591	141	290	2383	59	68	7	...	...	16	...
1835	1386	1218	1498	166	327	2538	121	...	5	...	1	28	...
1836	1458	1251	1481	190	326	2398	61	121	4	...	...	14	...
1837	1516	1291	1537	332	867	2638	23	94	20	1	8	23	1
Total	16,188	13,833	18,839	55	5407	33,145	4674	559	69	1	16	222	1



(Continued.)

from 1828 to 1837. (Continued.)

DEATHS.														
Year.	Sex.				Kind of death.									Total.
	Males.	Females.	From 40 to 60 years.	Above 60 years.	Natural deaths.			Violent deaths.						
					Common.	Epidemic disease.	Small pox.	Suicide.	Hydrophobia.	Murdered.	Accidental.	Executed.		
1828	164	148	35	54	254	13	.....	...	...	...	2	1	270	
1829	168	167	81	89	355	.....	.....	1	...	...	...	...	356	
1830	136	144	38	69	276	.....	1	3	...	...	3	1	284	
1831	342	262	60	93	397	.....	1	...	3	...	...	...	401	
1832	270	268	82	83	444	.....	4	...	...	1	4	...	453	
1833	316	247	70	93	471	.....	.....	...	...	1	...	...	472	
1834	144	176	34	60	272	.....	.....	...	...	...	...	...	272	
1835	142	153	49	59	280	.....	.....	...	...	...	...	...	280	
1836	144	152	190	138	279	158	8	...	...	...	...	...	445	
1837	159	151	35	85	283	.....	.....	...	...	...	...	...	283	
Total	1985	1268	674	823	3311	171	14	4	3	2	9	2	3516	
1828	2939	2441	466	744	4034	12	1	10	...	5	16	...	4078	
1829	2893	2894	757	1097	5068	23	1	8	...	7	31	...	5138	
1830	3010	2216	806	1159	5599	16	88	5	...	10	23	...	5741	
1831	3121	2474	744	1043	4884	10	51	4	...	10	16	...	4975	
1832	3071	2462	804	1103	4859	28	83	3	...	11	27	...	5011	
1833	3131	2497	854	1087	5341	14	32	2	...	5	15	...	5409	
1834	3169	3194	860	1121	5627	15	22	5	...	11	20	...	5700	
1835	3160	3045	329	1122	5049	5	57	3	...	9	32	...	5155	
1836	3266	3122	1161	1544	5935	885	14	2	...	1	15	...	6852	
1837	3298	3156	708	1232	5264	19	23	2	2	2	27	...	5339	
Total	31,058	29,201	7989	11,252	51,660	1027	372	44	2	71	222	...	53,398	
1828	1811	1003	574	1096	3803	.....	.....	1	...	3	35	...	3842	
1829	1775	1220	728	1376	4347	365	1	12	...	12	47	...	4784	
1830	1841	1067	684	1291	4357	10	24	5	...	6	54	...	4456	
1831	1899	1005	626	1294	4168	25	71	14	...	2	35	...	4315	
1832	1778	1294	887	1395	4467	20	26	5	...	3	43	...	4564	
1833	1882	1072	963	1108	4020	22	27	5	...	2	29	...	4105	
1834	1818	1034	659	1121	3734	12	19	8	...	1	43	...	3817	
1835	1899	1008	585	1314	3618	80	36	1	...	1	39	...	3775	
1836	1840	1256	642	3585	4910	2425	.....	2	...	...	22	...	7359	
1837	1878	1241	357	1603	3582	326	.....	1	...	...	55	1	3965	
Total	18,459	17,800	6705	15,183	41,006	3285	204	54	...	30	402	1	44,982	



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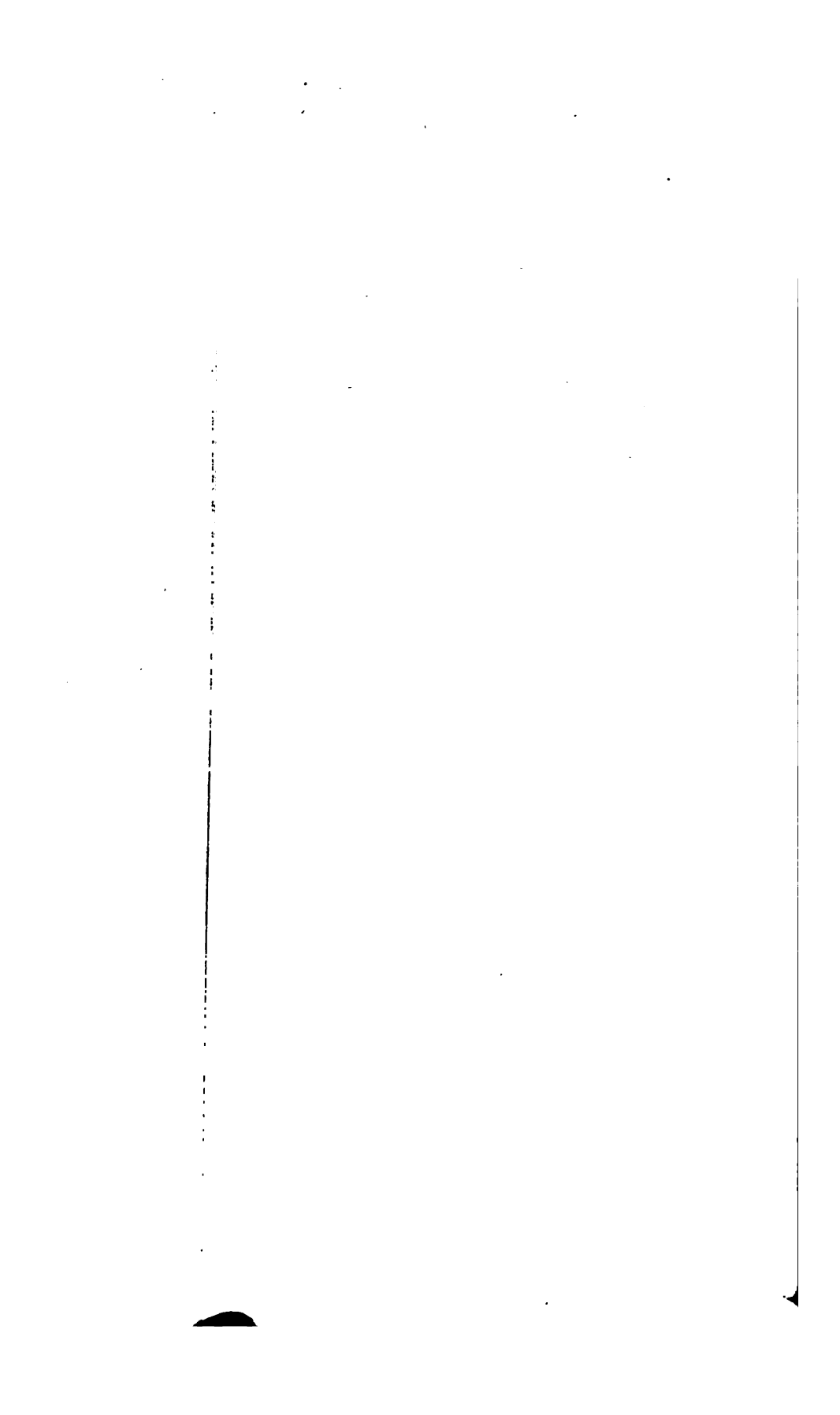


*Births in 1839.*

Provinces.	Sex.		Legitimate.			Illegitimate.			Illegitimate to legitimate in the proportion of 1 to
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
Lower Austria .....	27,180	25,623	20,739	19,419	40,158	6,441	6,204	12,645	3·2
Upper Austria .....	12,919	12,451	10,584	10,164	20,748	2,335	2,287	4,622	4·5
Stiria .....	15,824	15,111	12,057	11,606	23,663	3,767	3,505	7,272	3·2
Carinthia & Carniola	11,936	11,399	9,750	9,326	19,076	2,186	2,073	4,259	4·5
Illyrian coast .....	9,251	8,740	8,650	8,152	16,802	601	588	1,189	14·1
Tyrol .....	13,816	12,857	13,194	12,254	25,448	622	603	1,225	20·7
Bohemia .....	81,592	76,621	69,928	65,276	135,204	11,664	11,345	23,009	5·9
Moravia and Silesia	41,799	39,570	36,419	34,340	70,759	5,380	5,230	10,610	6·7
Galicia .....	105,658	99,783	97,940	92,591	190,531	7,718	7,192	14,910	12·8
Dalmatia ..	6,228	5,954	6,051	5,746	11,797	177	208	385	30·7
Lombardy .....	55,552	50,906	53,088	48,576	101,664	2,464	2,330	4,794	21·2
Venice .....	45,033	42,099	43,882	41,034	84,916	1,151	1,065	2,216	38·3
	100,585	93,005	96,970	89,610	186,580	3,615	3,395	7,010	26·6
Total...	426,788	401,114	382,282	358,484	740,766	44,506	42,630	87,136	8·5
	434,000								
Hungary (approxin.)	224,000	210,000							
Transylvania .....	33,048	30,609	32,324	29,890	62,214	724	719	1,443	43·1
Military frontier ...	28,115	26,019	27,810	25,713	53,523	305	306	611	87·6
Total...	711,951	667,742							



Tyrol .....	20,527	235	93	20,855	12	2	23	370	1	408
Bohemia .....	116,783	636	128	117,497	174	5	53	809	6	1,047
Moravia and Silesia .....	61,356	125	55	61,356	106	.....	24	488	1	1,619
Galicia .....	137,924	4,936	1,216	144,076	192	11	92	1,586	18	1,899
Dalmatia .....	8,761	217	2	8,980	7	1	50	92	1	151
	478,662	7,317	2,309	488,288	685	25	312	4,537	30	5,589
Lombardy .....	85,906	289	1,139	87,326	51	14	79	579	.....	723
Venice .....	67,244	208	133	67,585	38	11	52	725	2	828
	153,150	497	1,264	154,911	89	25	131	1,304	2	1,551
	631,812	7,814	3,573	643,199	774	50	443	5,841	32	7,140
Hungary .....				309,000						
Transylvania.....	41,064	428	700	42,192	32	14	47	461	5	559
Military frontier .....	46,671	240	35	46,946	52	6	37	292	5	365



# No. VII.

*Statistical results for the year 1839, from M. Becher's work.*

Provinces.	Number of the population in the year 1839 to				No. of living births to 1 still-born.	Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate birth.	No. of boys born to 100 girls.
	1 English sq. mile.	1 marriage.	1 birth.	1 death.			
Lower Austria .....	179	126	26	27	45	3·2	
Upper Austria .....	115	148	33	36	65	4·0	103·5
Styria .....	111	156	31	35	59	3·2	104·5
Carinthia and Carniola ...	96	175	32	37	88	7·7	104·5
Illyrian coast .....	155	116	27	37	57	16·0	105·5
Tyrol .....	76	162	32	39	296	20·7	107·5
Bohemia.....	204	129	26	29	55	6·0	106·0
Moravia and Silesia .....	210	134	26	32	81	6·0	105·5
Galicia .....	148	111	26*	28	124	12·0	105·0
Dalmatia.....	77	145	32	44	270	28·0	105·0
Lombardy .....	307	116	23	39	69	21·0	109·0
Venice.....	232	124	24	31	114	34·0	108·0
Transylvania .....	87	145	32	30	204	42·0	107·5
Military frontier.....	79	90	22	29	134	87·0	107·0

\* In 1837.



## No. VIII.

*Statement of the objects introduced into and produced in Vienna on which  
the consumption duty was levied in 1837.*

Objects.		Price.	Value.
		Florins.	Florins.
Rum, arrack, punch-essence and liqueurs (12 $\frac{7}{10}$ galls.) eimers	4,314	30	13,020
Brandy and spirits of wine .....	22,984	.....	445,516
Wine .....	293,078	6	1,758,468
Must .....	7,391	5	36,955
Mead .....	430	3	1,290
Beer .....	6	12	72
Vinegar .....	847,527	4	3,390,108
Oxen, cows, calves, &c., 1 year and over .....	17,563	4	70,258
Calves under 1 year .....	91,783	80	7,342,640
Sheep, goats, &c. ....	107,996	15	1,619,940
Lambs, kids, sucking-pigs .....	33,876	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	157,854
Young pigs, from 9 to 35 lbs. ....	68,865	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	151,503
Pigs above 35 lbs. ....	11,422	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	121,835
Fresh and salted meat, sausages, &c. .... (123 lbs.) cwt.	66,720	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,502,000
Turkeys, geese, ducks and capons .....	5,158	21	108,318
Chickens, fowls, pigeons, &c. ....	356,814	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	428,177
Stags (red deer) .....	1,732,687	$\frac{1}{4}$	433,172
Wild boars over 30 lbs. weight .....	1,794	25	44,850
Young boars, roebucks, chamois, &c. ....	833	25	20,825
Hares .....	7,178	9	64,602
Meat of stags and boars .....	127,398	$\frac{1}{2}$	63,699
Pheasants, cock of the woods, and "Birkhahne" .....	83	20	1,660
Partridges, "Hasel" and snow-fowls, wild geese, } .....	22,812	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	31,937
ducks, widgeons, woodcocks, moorfowl } .....	53,669	$\frac{3}{4}$	32,201
Thrushes, throistles, quails, larks, and small birds .....	8,048	$\frac{7}{8}$	3,219
Fish, fresh and salted, crayfish, oysters, tortoises, } .....	15,082	20	301,640
frogs, mussels and snails } .....	63,219	3	189,957
Wheat, spelt, maize, rye, &c. ....	374,182	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	997,819
Oats .....	33,135	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	182,242
Beans, peas, &c. ....	7,500	16	120,000
Rice .....	875,306	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	824,375 800,555 16,860 191,778 907,092 595,149 190,100 130,960 227,235 12,456 181,080 436,138 1,023,564 242,960 111,252 16,762 1,371,034
Flour of wheat, barley and other grains, grits, pearl- barley, starch, potatoe flour, bread, cakes, &c. } .....	3,755	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Seeds of hemp, flax, rape and sun-flowers .....	80,071	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Fine vegetables, cauliflowers, asparagus, peas, beans, cucumbers, &c. } .....	331,254	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Common vegetables, cabbages, turnips, potatoes, &c. ....	139,731	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Fresh fruit, chestnuts, walnuts, &c. ....	7,218	15	
Dried fruits .....	32,975	25	
Olive, almond, nut, hemp and seed oils .....	22,873	35	
Butter, fresh and salted, fat and tallow .....	562	30	
Bacon, lard and grease .....	7,999	24	
Cheese .....	10,885,107	$\frac{1}{2}$	
Milk .....	44,636,200	.....	
Eggs .....	1,901	100	
Honey .....	1,637	80	
Wax, raw and manufactured .....	227,235	1	
Hay .....	519	24	
Soap .....	3,018	60	
Train oil .....	290,759	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Straw .....	85,297	12	
Firewood, oak and beech .....	30,370	8	
Firewood and faggots .....	111,252	1	
Charcoal .....	83,210	$\frac{1}{4}$	
Coals .....	.....	.....	
Building materials .....	.....	.....	4,544,081

EMPI

Beef.

b. = 100  
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# EMPIRE FOR THE YEAR

No. IX.

Beef.		Wine.				Beer.				Discount in Trade.	Per cent. per annum.	
b. = 1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>10</sub> avoirdupois.		in eimer = 12 <sup>7</sup> / <sub>10</sub> English gallons.				th						
		Highest.		Lowest.		Highest.		Lowest.		Paper.	Cash.	
9	0	48	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	8	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4	0	
8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	48	0	9	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4	0	
9	0	48	0	9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	7 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4	0	
7 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	28	0	10	0	7	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	14	0	0	
7 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	28	0	10	0	7	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	14	0	0	
7 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	25	0	9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	7	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	14	0	0	
5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	42	0	20	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	10	6	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	42	0	20	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	5	9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	6	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	43	0	20	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	0	
6	0	23	0	11	0	7	0	5	9	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	25	0	11 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	7	0	6	9	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
6	0	25	0	11	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	0	
7	0	24	0	14	0	7	0	6	12	6	6	
6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	26	0	16	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	6	13	6	6	
6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	26	0	17	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	6	13	0	0	
8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	10	0	8	0	12	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	16	7	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	11	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	12	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	16	6	7	
8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	12	0	9	0	12	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	16	0	0	
9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	20	0	14	0	10 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	15	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	24	0	17	0	10	0	9	16	4	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	22	0	15	0	10	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	16	0	0	
6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	1	0	0	35	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4	7 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	54	0	33	0	4	0	4	8	6	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	54	0	33	0	4	0	4	8	0	0	
6	0	37	0	15	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	8	11	10 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
6	0	35	0	17	0	4	0	4	8	9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	9	
6	0	35	0	17	0	4	0	4	8	0	0	
3	1	12	0	31	0	4	0	3	7	9	9	
3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	1	31	0	30	0	4	0	3	7	9	9	
3	1	18	0	31	0	4	0	3	7	0	0	
4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	9	0	8	18	0	0	
4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	9	0	7	17	0	0	
4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	8	18	0	0	
11 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	9	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	10 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	9	15	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
11 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	11	0	7 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	10 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	9	16	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
12	0	10	0	7	0	10 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	8	17	0	0	
11 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	6	0	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	10 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	11	6	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
11 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	10 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	11	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	6	
11 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	8	11	0	0	
4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	11 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	0	0	
4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	10 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	7	0	4	0	4	0	0	0	
4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	11	0	7	0	4	0	4	0	0	0	
3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	14	0	7	0	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	0	0	
3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	16	0	9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	0	0	
3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	17	0	9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4	0	4	0	0	0	
4	0	14	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	16	0	0	
3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	16	0	8 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	16	0	0	
3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	16	0	9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	15	0	0	
5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	27	0	14	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	5	11	7	7	
5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	29	0	14	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	11	7	7	
5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	28	0	14	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	11	0	0	
6	0	55	0	23	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	11	0	6	
9	0	38	0	25	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	13	0	0	
7	1	36	0	37	0	5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	11	6	6	
6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	1	50	0	40	0	6	0	4	7 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	6	6	
3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	2	12	0	37	0	7	0	3	8	9	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	
10 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	7 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	7 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	0	7 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	13	0	6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	

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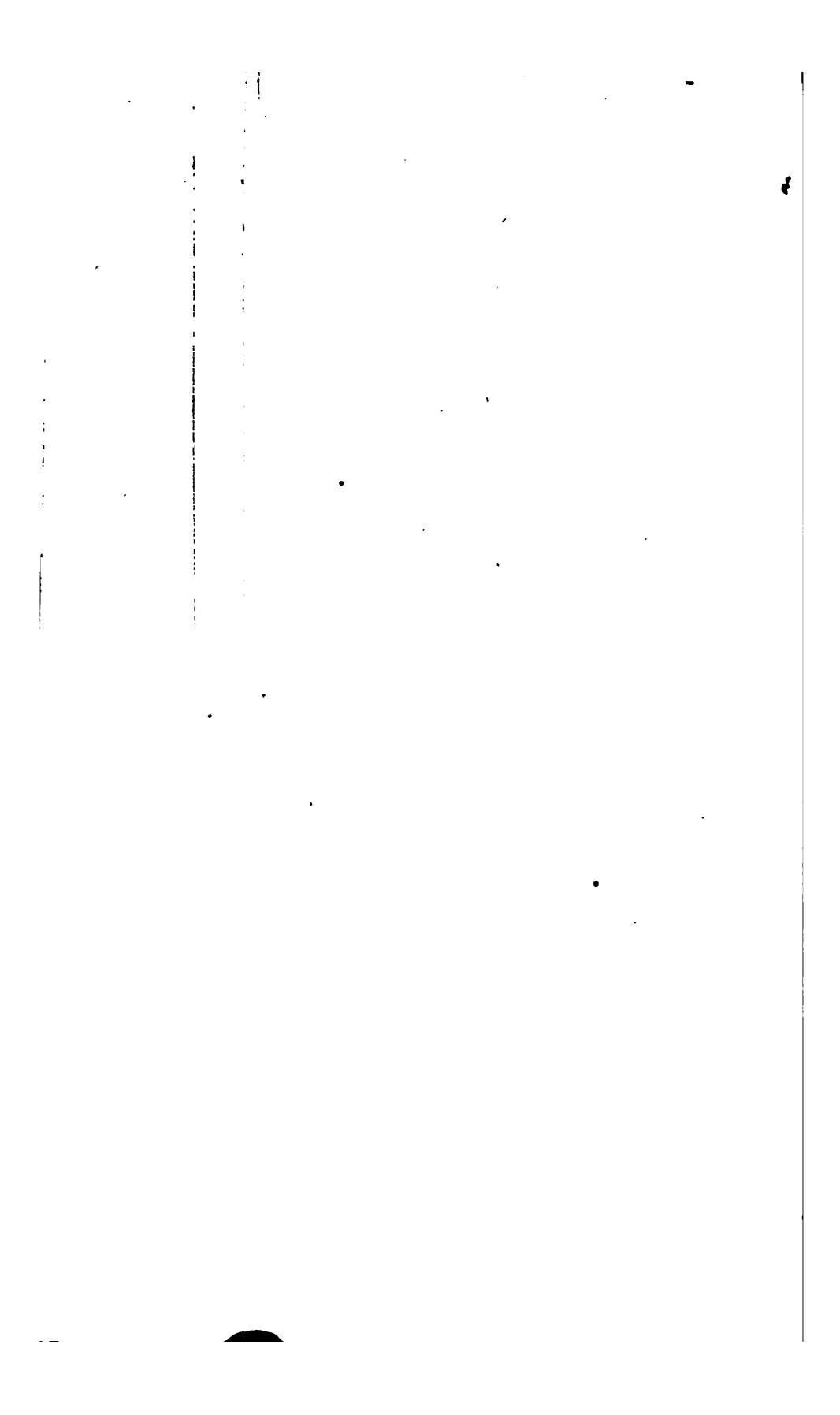
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No. X.

FOR THE YEAR 18

of the Empire for Twenty

18:	1828.	1829.		Increase of population.		Rate of increase percent. in 20 years.
				In twenty years.	In one year.	
1,195	1,198,994	1,201,522	16	287,750	14,387.5	26.7
821	826,043	828,335	14	74,536	3,726.8	9.6
830	840,386	841,894	16	189,292	9,464.6	24.7
710	719,860	721,543	17	111,251	5,562.6	17.4
415	420,503	424,614	16	108,361	5,418.5	30.3
770	783,465	785,336	30	92,766	4,638.3	12.6
3,730	3,783,305	3,807,558	27	792,027	39,601.3	24.0
1,990	2,011,479	2,023,593	12	367,756	18,387.8	21.0
4,385	4,435,435	4,461,571	31	839,312	41,965.6	22.3
335	341,321	345,487	35	85,485	4,274.2	28.8
2,335	2,353,346	2,376,059	73	324,873	16,243.6	14.9
1,995	2,010,532	2,021,828	11	248,427	12,421.3	13.3
10,781	10,892,491	11,004,235	139	1,902,462	95,123.2	19.3
1,835	1,860,401	1,879,866	14	380,506	19,025.3	23.4
1,065	1,073,680	1,065,937	53	260,474	13,023.7	28.6
33,213	33,551,241	33,789,378	354	6,065,278	303,263.9	21.1



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*George Sumner Esq*  
*from the Author*  
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# AUSTRIAN STATISTICS.

*By Thomas Charles Banfield*

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[*Extracted from* THE BRITISH AND FOREIGN REVIEW, OR EUROPEAN  
QUARTERLY JOURNAL, No. XXVIII.]

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1843

## ARTICLE VII.

1. *Statistik des Oestreichischen Kaiserstaates.* Von JOHANN SPRINGER. Wien, 1840.
2. *Unpublished Official Reports and other Documents.*

IN our last number we endeavoured to furnish our readers with a picture of the social condition of the various provinces of the Austrian empire, in part drawn from the official publications of the Austrian government, which we illustrated and completed by adding other unpublished documents, of equal authenticity, from our private resources. We then assigned a double motive for attempting this task. The importance of so great an empire in the scale of European nations, and the interest attaching to authentic statistical details respecting its condition, would alone prove spur enough to the scientific inquirer to urge him to a study of these welcome materials. But even the general reader in England must be able to appreciate the utility of illustrating the state and prospects of a power, which is our natural political ally, and which, if it had been better known or more carefully studied, would in all probability by this time have been found to be no less ardently our commercial ally.

From these two reasons we find ourselves induced to ex-

tend our labours, and to anticipate the disclosures of the Vienna cabinet upon a most important subject, in both respects. The financial system of Austria, which has ever been veiled in almost impenetrable secrecy, will occupy us in the present number; and we feel convinced that the information which we are enabled to impart, will both be interesting to the financier, and will promote the better understanding of the true interests of both countries, which is the object that we have most at heart. While forwarding this desirable object, we at the same time furnish a mass of valuable materials illustrative of the working of taxation in general, which cannot fail to be peculiarly acceptable at a moment when the financial difficulties of our own land attract such merited and serious attention, and which afford many useful points for comparison.

But in inviting our readers to found a study, of the kind we have described, upon the materials here offered, we feel that they have a right to be satisfied of the authenticity of the documents thus put forward, and upon this head we are prepared with the fullest assurances. It will be remembered that at various preceding periods we have published documents emanating from the same source, of which we need only allude to the tables of the mining produce of the empire, and of the number of manufacturers, tradesmen, etc. in the empire, given in our Number XXI. These two tables have since been published by the Austrian government, and thus is their authenticity placed beyond a doubt. The tables which we now give, having been drawn from the same quarter, deserve therefore implicit confidence, and are moreover indirectly guaranteed by M. Springer, the author of the last and best statistical description of Austria, who evidently had the same papers under his hand, but who, from timidity or constraint, only extracted loosely from them. M. Springer has thus robbed his work of the value which would otherwise be attached to it, while he deprives the state of the advantages it would have reaped from a free and full disclosure of its financial policy. It is from the conviction that the investigation into which we are about to enter will show the resources of that mighty empire to be both more extensive and better managed than is generally supposed, that we feel no repugnance thus to anti-

cipate the disclosures of the Vienna cabinet respecting its financial system. Governments have only recently, and very partially, begun to appreciate the utility of submitting their financial operations to public scrutiny, and in many countries a most unnecessary mystery is made of the national revenue and expenditure, lowering the credit of the state in the money market, while the subject in such lands is deprived of the grand means of tracing many inconveniences to their true source. For if the population-returns of any country show us the practical effect of its system of government, and enable us to judge of its general character, the financial department affords the clearest insight into the working of the state machine, and points like an index to the parts where the pressure is unequal or the materials unsound.

The series of Tables, illustrating the financial system of the Austrian empire, which we now for the first time give to the world, emanate from the statistical bureau, which on a former occasion we stated to have been instituted by the late Emperor Francis, for his private information, and for that of the chief officers of the administration. They are therefore to be looked upon as the returns furnished from the various departments of the state,—the key to which, and the means of controlling whose authenticity, the minister of the finances naturally possessed. They were not drawn up for publication, nor were even the population-returns for the whole empire ever allowed to be published during the reign of the late Emperor. Thus, while we guarantee their authenticity, we are able to vindicate them from the suspicion attaching to too many documents of the kind that have of late years been made public, of being got up for the occasion. If there is here any falsification, it must be a deception practised on the sovereign by his confidential advisers—a notion which the circumstances do not warrant us in entertaining. The circumstance of these Tables coming into our possession is easily explained, by the fact of their circulating at Vienna in sufficient number to be accessible to almost any one who feels interest in them. The separate tables, it will be observed, have no special bearing upon the financial balance-sheet with which the series in our Appendix commences, and which proceeds from another quarter. This budget-sheet is extracted from the confidential



report made to the Emperor by the minister of the finances, M. von Eichhoff, for the year 1837. With the sums given in this interesting statement the totals of many of the tables do not exactly coincide, for reasons that will be evident to all who peruse them. It would require a much more voluminous detail of every branch of receipt and expenditure than the general statements here given contain, to make the totals exactly tally with the net sums which must be inserted in the budget. These tables do not profess to enter into such particulars, but convey a mass of statistical information of the highest value, both to the political economist and to the statesman, and as such we present them to our readers.

The Austrian revenue moreover derives from various sources, many of which, although retained in different degrees in most of the continental states, have long disappeared from the budget of Great Britain, while others have sunk into comparative insignificance with the rapid growth of the revenue drawn from the taxes on consumption. Of the sums drawn from the consolidated fund entitled "the Political Fund," and which is composed of the estates confiscated from the suppressed convents and monasteries by Joseph II., or rather of such of these as have not been sold, no account is taken in the receipts; and the supplementary sums paid annually to cover the deficiency in the disbursements of the various branches for whose use this fund was originally destined, are alone stated in the budget, which therefore does not show the whole expenditure in any department. Our table No. VIII. contains the receipts of this fund in detail, whose revenue from landed and other property amounts to 39,743,858 florins. Perfectly distinct from the landed-property belonging to the political fund are the crown lands, of which we have only the netto revenue in the budget stated at 3,339,914 florins. The expenses of the army are also defrayed out of special estates; so that the budget shows only the excess of expenditure over the fund. The monopolies of salt and tobacco, although only another form of an excise duty, and as such entered amongst the indirect taxes, appear to the English reader in an unaccustomed shape. The imperial factories and the revenues from the mines form separate items in the receipts, as do the more usual ones of the

post-office and the public lottery. The reader will find it easy to conceive that the special accounts of each of these branches may vary from the netto sum entered in the budget; inasmuch as the salaries of many public officers, which have to be deducted in the detailed account, are included in the general statement under the head of civil-service salaries. A complete exposition of the cases in which these deviations occur, would of course form a work demanding much time and space.

It forms no part of our present task to justify or to criticize the official statements, which we give as we find them, contenting ourselves with the addition which they form to the mass of intelligence which has already been published on financial matters; and indeed the enumeration, with a concise description, of each of the sources of revenue, and of the various branches of expenditure, will probably occupy as much space as can here be afforded. The authentic source whence these documents proceed, authorises us to regard them as a fair basis for the deduction of general principles; but even this we shall be obliged to reserve for a future number, when we shall endeavour to elucidate their practical application to our own relations with the empire. Here we would seek to present as clear and satisfactory a picture as our materials will allow, of the taxation and state-expenditure of the agglomeration of nations ruled by the Emperor of Austria, and embracing a large portion of the finest part of Europe.

A short survey of the financial difficulties under which the empire laboured during the last war will be necessary, in order to convey a just idea of the efforts which were requisite to raise the revenue to anything like an amount corresponding with the expenditure. The mode of raising the revenue will afford many interesting facts even for the experienced financier. In the expenditure we have not only an useful picture of the state-machinery, and not a few examples of good management, mingled with others that should serve for warnings, but a practical illustration of the social side of the financial position of a large portion of Europe. Finally, the statement of the public debt, after this inquiry into the capability of Austria to meet its engagements, will show the position which this empire has a right to hold in the forum of nations, denominated

in our age the money-market, and which, as we before hinted, we think will not be found an unfavourable one.

The budget of the year 1837 affords a fair basis for our inquiries. After a period of twenty-five years of almost uninterrupted peace, and of the most consistent adherence to one system,—before the changes consequent upon a new reign became perceptible, and before the extraordinary failures of the crops in the west of Europe affected the agricultural interests of the empire to the extent that took place in the subsequent years,—we have the best opportunity of judging of the working of the Austrian financial plan. To this year we shall confine ourselves, and only refer to other years in order to illustrate by comparison the increase or decrease of particular branches of the revenue.

On a former occasion we alluded to two peculiar influences whose effects were most conspicuous in the condition of the nation, as shown by the population-returns in 1837. Of course the same influences affected materially the financial operations of the preceding years. We allude to the division in the empire occasioned by the free constitution enjoyed by Hungary, and to the personal influence of the late Emperor. The exemption of Hungary from many of the burdens which press heavily on the other provinces, has had the effect of allowing capital to accumulate in that country, and has raised its agriculture to a footing equal to that of central Europe. The small revenue drawn from Hungary has had besides a negative effect, which was also good in its way; the minister having been compelled to husband resources which a greater command of means might have tempted him to despise. The Hungarian provinces, however, are by no means the only countries highly taxed within the empire, and the unproductiveness of the indirect taxation of such rich lands is, as we shall see, to be ascribed to causes that might be obviated by judicious financial arrangements.

As we have not withheld our opinion of that part of the late Emperor's direction which appeared to us defective, we are glad here to have an opportunity of doing justice to one trait in his political character, which it must be owned is of paramount importance—his inflexible efforts to support the credit of his government for financial integrity during the last

twenty years of his reign. Yet were these efforts, brilliant as was the success which attended them, scarcely considered by the nation as an equivalent for the blow inflicted in 1811 by Count Wallis's famous edict of bankruptcy. We must go back as far as that year in order to give a clear view of the present financial position of the empire. The immense expenditure occasioned by the French wars, which terminated with the treaties of Campoformio and Pressburg, was rendered the more pressing, as the gradual dismemberment of the empire lessened the sources of revenue by which it was to be supported. The loss of Belgium, the Milanese, the Suabian territories, and lastly of Tyrol and Illyria, had curtailed the receipts of the Crown by one fifth; while war was daily growing more expensive to carry on, and the continuance of peace implied a resignation of such extensive territories by the conquered party. Early in the revolutionary war, besides forced loans, recourse was had to the desperate measure of unlimited issues of paper-money; yet, down to 1799, there was but little difference between the value in circulation of notes and metal. The war which terminated with the battle of Austerlitz had a more sensible effect upon the credit of the state, and in 1805 the paper currency was at a discount of thirty-three per cent. The armed peace which lasted through the three following years increased the distress of the government, and at the close of 1808 the value of paper had fallen fifty-five per cent., 100 florins in coin being equivalent to 220 florins in paper. The paper money at that time in circulation amounted to 706,654,140 florins, or more than £70,000,000 sterling. The depreciation of the copper coin was another measure resorted to; and this was carried so far, that in 1807 80,000,000 of florins in copper were in circulation, a large proportion of which contained only one cwt. of copper in the nominal value of £160. In 1810 an attempt was made to change the name under which the paper-issues were emitted, and a new sinking-fund was established on the basis of an income-tax, but, as may be imagined, without effect. The new cessions of territory, and the hopeless state in which the peace of Pressburg, concluded after the battle of Wagram in 1809, had left the nation, completed the exhaustion of the government resources, and a formal declaration of bankruptcy

was the result. The amount of paper in circulation was 1,060,798,753 florins, or more than one hundred millions sterling. This sum by a stroke of the pen was reduced to one-fifth of its value, the edict of the 20th of February 1811 having declared that 100 florins in bullion was the amount at which the bank would redeem 500 florins of paper. The copper money was at the same time reduced from its nominal to its real value, and a new coinage announced, in which one cwt. of metal represented the value of only 213½ florins, or twenty-three pounds sterling.

The harshness as well as the inefficiency of this measure, which soon became perceptible, seem to have made a deep impression on the Emperor's mind. The project had been kept so close a secret, that even high officers of state and near friends of the minister had no suspicion that it was so near realization. The only real gain accruing from it to the government, was the defrauding of the claimants for goods delivered by contract which had not been paid for. A judicious financial operation could have bought up the paper in circulation at about the same price, without compromising the credit of the state; or a simple declaration of inability to pay for the moment would have left things nearly as they were, provided no further issues of paper were attempted. But the edict went further, and declared that all contracts pending between individuals, all debts, and claims for money of whatever kind, were reduced to the same standard, and the confusion in the empire thus became interminable. The reduction of the value of the old paper was intended to facilitate the issue of a new set of notes, but the discredit of the government caused these to be refused by the public in general, while advantage was taken of the moment by such as received the new notes in payment of salaries or claims, to tender them in acquittal of their debts to others. Fortunes thus changed hands in the most distressing manner; the lender was everywhere ruined; the borrower often realized an immense property. The old paper, which the government could only exchange for its new issues of redemption-notes (*Einlösungs-Scheine*), instead of sustaining the value fixed by the edict, fell in many cases from ½th to ¼th or ⅓th of even its nominal value, especially in Hungary, from which country a large importa-

tion of grain took place in consequence of a failure in the harvest. Property had no longer any value; of course such a state of things could not continue under other than exceptional circumstances.

That it did continue, however, and that in such financial difficulties the general rising against France took place in 1813, can be explained in the first place by the productive nature of the soil in the greater part of the empire, united with a thin and scattered population, and by the absolute necessity for something to represent a circulating medium after everything in the shape of bullion had disappeared. In times of great speculative excitement in America, a provincial bank was so hardly pressed for notes that whole packets were emitted without a signature. In Austria in like manner the dire necessity of the trader kept the paper issues of the government, whose credit was so totally lost, in some demand. But the trade supported by these means was confined to the transport of the first necessities of life from one province to the other. Manufacturing industry and all undertakings requiring any investment of capital gradually dwindled away, and the spinning-wheel and domestic loom supplied the place of modern mechanical inventions. The social system was reduced to its primitive elements. In such a state of things it was fortunate for the government that so powerful a means for carrying off the excited feelings of the nation presented itself as the invasion of France.

It was not until a year after the second treaty of Paris, in 1816, under the ministry of Count Stadion, that an attempt could be made to restore that degree of order which was necessary to the existence of the state. On the failure of the attempt to recommend the redemption-notes, another French invention had been resorted to, and notes of anticipation on the revenue of coming years were issued, with just as little success. They were taken where it was necessary by the receivers of salaries; but in the market their real, amounted but to twenty-seven per cent. of their nominal, value. It was no easy matter even to ascertain the exact amount of the issues that had been made; but a careful investigation fixed them at something near 638,715,925 florins in redemption and anticipation notes, or about 64,000,000*l.* sterling. Four

ordinances, dated the 1st of July 1816, put an end to this wretched state of things in a most desirable, if not in a creditable, manner. The government declared its readiness to pay off these notes in silver, at the rate of 100 florins in bullion for 250 florins in paper. This is the origin of the double currency which since that epoch has prevailed in Vienna under the denomination of note, and convention money. From this epoch trade and manufactures began to revive; the resources of the richest empire in Europe came into play. It was known that the Emperor took great personal interest in these arrangements, and indeed the nation had no other guarantee than his steadiness for their durability; so that it was natural he should enjoy a large share of the gratitude felt by those who were benefited by a restoration of credit, and hence the basis of the popularity which "Kaiser Franz" for many years really enjoyed.

In the following year, 1817, the national bank of Vienna was founded, and the shares of 500 florins each were sold for 1000 florins in paper and 100 florins in silver, at which rate the whole capital of 2,531,050 florins was subscribed. The increase of trade which took place on the restoration of order, under the prospect of a continuance of peace, came to the aid of the government, and the notes of the new bank soon circulated at the full value. The operations in the funds were attended in the commencement with less success. A loan of 120,000,000 florins, declared in October 1816 at five per cent. was taken partly at Frankfort and Augsburg at the low figure of forty-six per cent. A second loan negotiated in 1818 for 50,000,000 florins is said not to have brought a higher figure; and loans contracted in 1823, 1824 and 1826 to the amount of one hundred millions of florins were taken on disadvantageous terms, owing to the depression occasioned by the troubles in Sardinia and Naples, and the active share that Austria seemed inclined to take in so dubious a task as the maintaining of order in Italy. At that period the Austrian government reaped the first reward of its endeavours to restore financial order, and to give stability to property at home; for although the nature, and still more the manner, of this foreign interference was highly unpopular with the German and Slavonic portions of the empire, yet the conviction of the necessity for

maintaining tranquillity was so deeply rooted, that not the least symptoms of opposition or of a desire to check the proceedings of the executive manifested itself to the northward of the Alps.

For Austria, it was of the last consequence that the success of these operations in Italy, as well as of the French invasion of Spain, had the effect of putting a termination to the disposition to political plots, which were henceforth considered to be unavailing. The interval that elapsed, until the July revolution and Polish war once more set everything in jeopardy, served to consolidate and to give a new stimulus to credit. In 1829 the dividends on the shares of the national bank had risen from 30 florins to 63 florins per annum on the share of 500 florins, a figure which they have since but little exceeded. The value of the shares themselves had risen to 1500 florins and above, although the rate of discount had been reduced from 5 to 4 per cent.

Have we here, perhaps, the true solution of the riddle why all the Austrian provinces remained tranquil during the storms of 1830?

But if our slight historical sketch testifies to the value of tranquillity, at whatever cost it may be purchased, for a land in which security of property, the basis of all industry and wealth, has been shaken in the manner we have described, the experience of the following years affords an equally important lesson. The revolution of July in France, with the subsequent outbursts in Belgium and Poland, had a serious and salutary influence on the rest of the continent. These risings were in a great measure the result of the increase of wealth in the shape of labour, capital and knowledge in the different countries of Europe,—an improvement which naturally caused the owners to look for greater freedom of exertion, and to demand greater marks of respect from their governments than they enjoyed under the restoration. The jealousy entertained by Holland of Belgium, and by Russia of Poland, were felt as serious evils, repressive of the growth of prosperity in the weaker portions of those states. Austria was not in exactly a parallel position, but the discontent of the Italian provinces arose from a similar cause. It cannot be denied that after 1830 an increased activity in every branch



of trade was observable, notwithstanding the drain made upon the public coffers of the empire for great military equipments. Under the improved state of government, however, the sums thus disbursed remained in the country, and even contributed to support the inland manufactures; while the necessity of preventing collisions between the people and the troops caused more attention to be paid to the comforts and discipline of the latter. The average official value of the exports and imports of the empire in the six years from 1823 to 1828 inclusive, amounted to 88,650,219 florins imported, and 95,905,780 florins exported; whereas the average of the six years, from 1830 to 1835, gave for the imports 102,835,341 florins, and for the exports 111,246,215 florins; with the remarkable difference, that in the former period the trade was stationary, while in the latter it increased, in the exports 30 per cent., in the imports 6 per cent. in value, notwithstanding the rapid fall in price of almost every article. This rapid increase is in no small degree to be ascribed to the greater attention paid to the interests of the subject, and to the relaxation of numerous petty restraints upon exertion; and the effect would probably be still more remarkable had the cause been more active. The government reaped its share of the benefit arising from the growing prosperity of the state, for its revenues became abundant and regular; and loans, which it was still obliged occasionally to negotiate, were of late years readily taken at par by the capitalists of Vienna.

In 1835 the steam-boat communication with the Levant and the Black Sea by the way of Trieste and the Danube was called into play, and gave increased activity to trade. The exports in 1837 reached the sum of 119,621,758 florins; the imports amounted to 120,897,761 florins.

Although these statements indicate a progressive improvement in the wealth of the nation, yet it will doubtless excite surprise that the foreign trade of an empire as populous as France, and by a full fifth more peopled than Great Britain, should not exceed one-third of the amount of that of the first-named power, and amount to but one-fifth of the trade of England. We have, however, seen how the country was drained of capital and checked in its progress to industry by the war. The inquiry we are now engaged in will show us

what has been done since the peace to restore commercial activity and encourage manufactures.

The general survey of the revenue and expenditure given in our table No. I., shows that the sum levied under the head of direct taxes amounts to about 60 per cent. of the sum raised by indirect taxation. The netto amount of the direct taxes is 47,159,168 florins, and of this sum 37,599,496 florins are levied on the land. The land-tax exceeds the produce of the excise and customs' duties taken together, although the excise embraces a number of the first objects of necessity that in most lands are untaxed, and includes many agricultural productions. The flour, meal and provender consumed in the large cities is taxed at their gates, as the table given in our last number showing the sum raised for the "Octroi" of Vienna proves. Meat, malt, spirits and beer are also heavily taxed; and in Austria it may with truth be said, that the landowner bears a very heavy proportion of the national burdens. But it is probable that so large a sum as four millions of pounds sterling could not be raised at all, especially with the low prices for produce which we find in most of the provinces, were it not for a circumstance which is in itself (with low prices and imperfect cultivation) no evidence of great national prosperity,—we mean the great subdivision of the land.

The large estates which many of the nobles of Austria own in the provinces to the northward of the Alps, and on some of which 60,000 and more peasants are domiciled, form masses united solely by the now much-loosened manorial bond, and the claim which the landlord has upon a portion of the labour of the inhabitants. Of this tenure of land we gave some illustrations in our last number, and then stated that of late years the peasant landholder was in every respect, although bound by this obligation to labour, regarded by the law as the landowner. He stands in the position of the English copyholder whose incumbrances have not been fined down. The desire of the territorial rulers to draw their revenues directly from the peasant, instead of raising them through the intervention of the lords of the manor, facilitated this transition of property in Germany, as it doubtless did with us. In Austria the change was effected at a later period than in

England and Germany, and the different provinces are still in various stages of progress in the transition.

To comprehend this state of things, we must go back to the original conditions of the tenure of landed-property in all the provinces, which evidently were feudal in their organization, the fief-holder having received the use of the land, on certain conditions of service from the owner. C. F. Eichhorn fixes the period when the actual property in the land, instead of the usufruct, was assumed by lawyers in Germany to have been transferred to the peasant, as lying between the years 1517 and 1648. In Austria we have said it occurred later, and it was not until the reign of Maria Theresia that the Crown interfered to control the stipulations dictated by the landlord to his peasant. Under Joseph II., at the close of the last century, the Crown went a step further, and, assuming an independent position for the peasant, arbitrarily fixed the sum which he could well afford to pay for his holding at 30 per cent. of the gross produce of the land. As however the state was desirous to secure the sum demanded as land-tax, and fixed this at  $12\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., the remaining  $17\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. was awarded to the landlord in lieu of all claims. According to this standard, therefore, the peasants' dues, whether in labour or in money, have been modelled in the German and Slavonic provinces, notwithstanding the great discontent it occasioned, and the temporary and partial suspension of the operation of the law which Leopold, Joseph's successor, found it necessary to order. The final adoption of the principle (in practice, if not in theory) was only carried through after the awful scenes of the French revolution had made men feel the insecure tenure of property upon the old footing, and when the pressure of financial difficulties demanded, in the imperative manner we have seen, a sacrifice from those who were most interested in the reorganization of the state. The landlord was further mulcted by the laws enacted by Maria Theresia and Joseph, inasmuch as the labour which he was allowed to demand from his peasant was restricted to field-, and in some instances to farm-service. He thus received his rent in a specific commodity which could only be applied to a destined purpose, and which became less valuable in proportion as improved tools

and machinery made it superabundant in the market. He was indeed allowed to sell his superfluous labour, but only for agricultural purposes. Thus, besides the loss of the property in the land held by the peasant, and of the profit deriving from any increase in its value, he was not even left the free disposal of the rent to which it was acknowledged that he was entitled. In this manner the large estates may be said to have been arbitrarily divided amongst the labourers, and hence the great subdivision of the land. Another circumstance attaching to these regulations was, that they were not adopted after deliberation with the estates of the different provinces, but were promulgated by the plenary authority of the sovereign. They mark however, significantly enough, the rise of the *tiers état* in the social scale.

The circumstances under which the introduction of the land-tax in its present shape, in the northern provinces of the empire, became practicable and desirable, may be inferred from the fact of its being submitted to by the nobles. In the state of continental politics since the French revolution, the necessity of maintaining a large standing-army was paramount. Such a force can only be supported at a vast pecuniary expense, and in unsettled times the only source of revenue is the land. In the northern provinces the land-tax is levied on the cultivated surface, and is rated, not according to the amount produced, but according to the facilities which the quality of the soil affords to the cultivator. The tax thus operates as a stimulus to the greatest possible production, since on soils of equal quality a small crop pays the same tax as a large one. As long as a country is inhabited, a moderate land-tax will yield a constant revenue; because the first articles of sustenance are in every country originally—that is to say, with a thin population—grown cheaper at home than they can be bought elsewhere. The land is classified, according to its powers of yielding corn, under the ordinary system of tillage in a threefold rotation, of winter corn, summer corn, the third year being left for fallow. If this basis be not correct as a scientific one, it at the least admits of an extension of the impost to very poor soils without much ground of complaint; and the calculations being everywhere founded on the experience of preceding years, and reduced

into money according to the market prices of the several districts, on an average taken from the last twenty years of the last century, the tax cannot be said to have operated discouragingly upon the investment of capital and the cultivation of natural advantages, while the grades of difference arising from position and unequal distribution of capital are taken with the quality of the soil into the account. If we compare the market prices in the different provinces, as shown in table No. IX. of our last number, for years when the increase of population and the progress of other branches of industry had raised the price, or at least extended considerably the sale of grain, we shall find the profit arising to the cultivator (and out of which he of course ultimately pays his tax) so small, that the surrender made by the landlord of the land itself, on condition of the peasant's charging himself with the tax, was little more than a nominal sacrifice.

Under other circumstances than the great subdivision of the land, on the present mode of rating peasants' holdings, so large a sum as is now collected could certainly not have been raised from the land. If the soil had remained divided into large estates, a tax raised in large sums would have been an intolerable burden for the landowner, and would probably have led (as in Poland) to a paralyzation of the influence of government. If apportioned simply according to the surface of land cultivated, without classification or increasing with improvements, it would have restricted enterprise, and have kept a great deal of land out of tillage. The only tax of importance in a country in which political or moral causes impede the accumulation of capital, is the land-tax; and its measure must be the amount that the country can afford without checking enterprise by depriving it of the means it requires for improvement. When the provisory arrangement adopted after the war by the late Emperor, until an exact measurement of the land and its produce should be completed, was published, the principle here described was carried out, perhaps unconsciously, and the rate fluctuated in the levy imposed on each province. Our table No. II. shows a division into two classes. In the eight provinces of the first division a distinction is drawn between *dominical* and *rustical* property in the land-tax levied. Under the for-

mer denomination the property of such nobles is comprehended as they retain in land, together with the amount of the rents and dues which they derive from the holdings of their peasants. From the sums thus assessed, the cost of maintaining the manorial courts, the churches, glebe-houses, schools, and other obligatory charges is deducted, and on the remainder the tax is levied. The rate charged on dominical property is about one half of the rate on rustical property, or the land held by citizens or peasants under the manorial bond. If a person who is not a noble buys dominical property, he pays the land-tax on it at the usual rate on rustical property in the same province. This inconvenience is obviated by purchasing a patent of nobility, which is scarcely ever refused to the holder of dominical property, and which may therefore be considered as an additional tax upon such property, by limiting the market in which it is saleable.

These remarks will explain the striking inequality evident upon the face of our table (No. II.) in the tax levied upon the land. In Lower Austria the land-tax averages 44 kreutzers, or one shilling and five pence per joch of cultivated land (about one shilling per acre); in Upper Austria the average was nearly twelpence per joch; in Styria the same; in Illyria about eight pence; in the Illyrian Coast two shillings and sixpence; in Bohemia one shilling and fourpence; in Moravia nearly one shilling and eightpence; and in Galicia fourpence on the cultivated joch, which is about  $1\frac{2}{3}$ ths English acres. In all these provinces the distinction between rustical and dominical property obtains\*.

The actual survey of about one half of the empire, which was entrusted to a commission, was completed by the end of 1837; but in the province of Lower Austria alone were the corrections and disputed demands sufficiently adjusted to allow of the application of the new standard in that year. M. Springer states that the estimate of the netto produce of

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\* A practical illustration of this mode of rating the land-tax is given in Mr. McCulloch's Geographical Dictionary, under the head "*Austria*." The practical distinction between the noble in Austria (where there is a practical distinction) and the citizen or peasant, consists in the privilege of the first-named class to hold land without a fine. In England no such distinction now exists; the lower grades are therefore practically raised to the level of the nobles. Hence the disregard shown in England respecting what, in countries less advanced, is called purity of blood. The English citizen and peasant rank in matters of inheritance with the English noble, and consequently with the nobles of every other state.

that province for 1837 was 14,166,254 florins, which makes 41 per cent. of the gross sum given in the table at 34,592,836 florins. The amount charged for land-tax on the netto sum being 2,395,000 florins, is nearly equal to 17 per cent. But it is said that the dues and services drawn by the landlords, and which are taxed with the lands, are deducted from the netto amount, and that the general charge is about 18½ per cent. in Lower Austria on the estimated netto yield of the land. It must, however, not be forgotten, that the valuation is a very moderate one, and that but little of the land is now cultivated in the primitive mode of two crops with a fallow in the third year; consequently the real gross produce of that province must be far greater than the sum at which it is valued in the table.

The earliest attempt to estimate methodically the produce of a country for the purpose of taxing it directly, appears to have been made in the Milanese, immediately on the first cession of that territory to Austria in the middle of the sixteenth century. A land-tax, levied both in kind and in money, had previously existed, but was rated in so arbitrary a manner, and was so unjustly divided, that, when the necessities of Charles V. obliged him to husband his resources, he had to appoint a commission for the improvement of the mode of levying it. On this occasion, Carli tells us, it was proposed to impose a tax upon persons engaged in trade in order to equalize the burden; but they escaped, under the pretext that it was impossible to draw the necessary distinction between the commission trade for other countries and the inland traffic. Under circumstances of equal competition with neighbouring states, of course a tax upon commission trade would have transferred that source of profit to other countries; but it is probable that the exemption of the traders was then carried by their influence in the municipal councils. Under the Spanish government the old confusion was re-established: an immense number of civil servants eat up the revenue, the levy of which was most iniquitously divided between the country "commune" and the citizens. The constant wars, in which the Milanese suffered so much from friend and foe, were accompanied by a rapid increase of imposts, which fell heaviest upon those classes who were not represented in

the municipal corporations; until at last a common labourer had to pay a poll-tax, amounting at different periods to 10, 15, or even 20 scudi (from £2:10s. to £5), while the debts of the corporate bodies attained a fearful height. Under these circumstances a great expatriation of the most useful hands took place. Mantua, Bergamo, Brescia, and even Venice, became enriched with the arts and manufactures which Milan, in the days of its prosperity, had monopolized. The climax to this distress was formed by an edict from Madrid, dated 11th July, 1671, authorising the corporations to break faith with the public creditor, and to pay in future but 3 and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. for loans which had been contracted at and over 5 per cent. As a consequence of the oppression of Spanish taxation, and the ruin of trade by the artificial rise effected in the price of labour, it is stated by Carli that the population of Milan, towards the commencement of the eighteenth century, was reduced to 6000; whereas, a century before, the cloth and silk manufactures in the city gave alone employment to 60,000 hands.

Under these circumstances the victorious arms of Eugene brought the Milanese under the rule of the Hapsburg emperor Charles VI, in 1706. The regulation of the finances was his first concern. A commission caused a minute estimate to be made of the annual produce of the land in every commune. The cost of cultivation was carefully ascertained and deducted, and the land divided into classes according to its fertility under the customary mode of tillage. The distinction between citizens and peasants was done away, and a system of taxation of the land established, which has since served as a model both for the empire and for the greater part of the continent of Europe. The land-tax (*impôt foncier*) introduced into France after the revolution was modelled upon the "Cataster"\* of Milan.

The advanced state of agriculture in Italy at the time the land-tax was first introduced into those provinces does not altogether explain the high rate which is now levied. The assessment made by the vice-regal government of France was higher than had previously existed, and the additional arbitrary

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\* From *κατά, στερεόν* (barbaricè).



contributions demanded during the French sway made it appear an alleviation when they were no longer raised. If the advantages of soil and climate, the high price of produce, and the facilities for foreign sale are taken into account, as well as the circumstance that several branches of industry, and indeed of manufacture, such as rearing silk-worms, spinning silk, and other occupations, have amalgamated themselves with the agriculture of the country, and that the buildings employed for these purposes are not charged with house-tax, the rate at which the land is assessed will not we believe appear much more than that of the other provinces. It amounts for Lombardy to five shillings, and for Venice to three shillings and sixpence, per joch. It is, however, questionable whether this sum presses so much upon the cultivator of the soil as the lower rates in many other provinces. But the improved condition of the country, united to the high prices of produce, had brought about in the north of Italy almost a corresponding subdivision of land to that produced in the northern provinces in the arbitrary manner that has been described. This circumstance lightens in Italy, as well as to the northward of the Alps, the burden of this mode of taxation, and is probably the sole condition on which it could be levied at the present rate.

In Tyrol the average rate does not exceed fivepence per joch, but differs in the northern from the southern parts of the province. A heavy land-tax in a province importing a large portion of its consumption of grain would operate as a tax upon provisions, and would cause the country to be deserted when neighbouring tracts offered advantages to the emigrant. In our last number we enlarged upon the exceptional treatment which Tyrol has met with and requires. The cultivation of the valleys in the northern parts is almost confined to garden tillage, and to stock and dairy husbandry; as the growth of the cereales to any great extent in so rude a climate, and on indifferent soils, would of course be too costly for the farmer. The government therefore wisely facilitates the importation of corn from Bavaria, but even under this sanction it is a dear article; for it must be drawn by land carriage from plains situated at nearly 100 miles distance. It is owing to this difficulty that any corn at all is grown in the north of Tyrol.

The position of the Hungarian farmer illustrates another side of the operation of the land-tax. In a country rich in produce, a tax levied in money can only be defrayed out of the returns from foreign trade. At the time that the Emperor Joseph endeavoured to enforce a land-tax in that kingdom, it was almost entirely cut off from commercial intercourse with its neighbours. Poland, which took some of its wines, had sunk under the virulence of intestine faction and foreign intrigue. The wars of Austria with the Turks and the fear of the plague cut off the communication towards the East and the South. On the West, the capital and mountain districts of Styria and Illyria furnished consumers, but not to the extent that these districts now require supplies, and Hungarian produce was always taxed on its entrance into the other provinces. The payment of a tax at all proportioned to the fertility of the soil was therefore an utter impossibility, and the resistance offered by the Hungarian nobleman was dictated by stern necessity, rather than, as was then said and has since been repeated, by overweening pride. On the regulation of the tariff, which underwent several modifications during the reign of the Emperor Francis, the principle of taxing the productions of Hungary on exportation was preferred to conciliating the nation and inducing the Diet to ameliorate the mode of taxation. In 1809, indeed, when the arms of the French had cut off some of the most prolific sources of the imperial revenues, an attempt made by the nobles of Hungary to improve their communication with the sea by the way of the Julian Alps was sanctioned by the government, and the splendid Louisa road was then executed, which, but for the tax already alluded to, would have proved much more serviceable to the country than it has hitherto been. The road is, however, too hilly to allow of exportation on a scale proportioned to the powers of the kingdom; but, difficult as its passage is, it is the sole channel along which the wheat, tobacco and other products of the Banat travel to the sea, and in years of scarcity it has proved of great utility to England. The immense advantage which would accrue to the government, if it encouraged the entrance of foreign articles of manufacture at a moderate duty by this channel to so rich and populous a country as Hungary, whose position justifies

the adoption of an exceptional line of policy, have, during the last three years, on several fitting opportunities, been impressed by us upon all who are interested in the matter. The interests of the Austrian government, of the English manufacturer, and of the Hungarian consumer, here unite in a focus too brilliant to be mistaken; and it cannot sufficiently be lamented, that in Lord Beauvale's treaty of 1838, this sole channel of advantageous communication with Hungary, the key to the commercial greatness of Austria, and the cultivation of which can alone ensure her influence in the East and the command of the Danube, was totally overlooked.

Whatever may appear enigmatical in these assertions, we trust we shall find another opportunity of clearing up. At the period, therefore, when the Emperor Joseph desired to extend the operation of his decrees to Hungary, the country was evidently not ripe for the change, and the attempt to enforce them roused the land into a flame of opposition, which was only appeased by their abrogation under his successor. But the landowners, although they were able to resist the limitations proposed with a view of protecting the peasant on the one side and of securing to the state a share of his supposed profits on the other, were not able, nor perhaps desirous, to deprive the peasant of the property, which, it was generally assumed, he had acquired in the soil he cultivated. In the struggle the Diet saved its right to control the public expenditure, and fixed itself the amount of the contribution which the land could pay. The peasant, as not holding his land on the tenure of military service, was declared to be liable to this rate as an "*escuage*." The noble professed to be ready to take the field in person, and at his own expense, on occasions when the Diet should decree that he was bound to do so, in the levy termed "the Insurrection." The title which the peasant was allowed to have to his holding was moreover used as a guarantee for the services due to his lord, and until 1837 the Hungarian peasant was practically looked upon as "*adstrictus glebæ*." The amount of the contribution agreed to by the Diet was a fixed sum of 4,229,029 florins, under the heads of "Military contribution," "Bounty money," and "Allowance for the Noble Guard." As the area of cultivated land in Hungary is estimated at 33,537,630 jochs, this

averages 7 kreutzers, or about  $2\frac{1}{4}d.$  per joch. The levy is however very unequally rated by the different counties, according to an antiquated mode of assessment by *portæ*, or gateways, which, Mr. Paget tells us, originally represented houses or establishments, and which, owing to the political circumstances of the country, were then more numerous in the mountainous counties than in the fertile plains of the Theiss and the Danube. The number of *portæ* is now  $6210\frac{3}{8}$ , of which 224 are reckoned to Slavonia and  $135\frac{5}{8}$  to Croatia. But each county in Hungary, besides defraying the expense of its local magistracy and the general charges for the government of the kingdom, maintains the troops quartered in it; and the demand on this score, although, from its being paid mostly in kind, it falls less heavily on the inhabitants than it otherwise would, is no small one.

In Transylvania, as in Hungary, the nobleman is exempt from contribution in the two portions of the principality in which Hungarian customs prevail; that is to say, in the "Land of the Szeklers" and in the "Land of the Hungarians." In the "Land of the Saxons" there is no exemption. The amount of the contribution raised in Transylvania is 890,000 florins, approximatively.

If these contributions from Hungary and Transylvania are added to the sum marked in our table as raised from the other provinces in 1829, we obtain the amount of 38,781,153 florins, from which, if we deduct  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. for the cost of collection, say 197,000 florins, and the reduction of 270,000 florins allowed in Galicia in 1837, we have 37,542,125 florins, which closely agrees with the netto sum entered in the budget as given in our table No. I.

The dispute between the government and the landed-proprietors in Hungary, which we have here gone into so fully, has not remained without a serious effect upon the agriculture and general prosperity of the country. The fear of encouraging a class of tenants, in whose favour the government might again come forward and claim an alienation of landed property, induced the landowners systematically to abstain from creating peasants' settlements on their estates. This would have checked all progress in the country, if the constraint had not been counteracted by a system which has long been

a characteristic trait in the agriculture of Hungary, and has lent the country no slight tinge of wild and picturesque peculiarity. Large and fertile plains of immense extent, which it would be altogether useless to plough up, although in many parts their fertility is almost boundless, are grazed over by immense herds of cattle, the length of whose horns and the sleekness of whose hides testify to the exuberantly nutritious food which they crop. The herdsmen long formed a kind of nomadic population, and the guardians of the half-wild horses, black cattle, sheep and pigs, formed castes of pastoral labourers, whose powers and whose feats often bore a natural resemblance to those of the nomadic tribes of Asia. The rapid increase of population, and above all the growing demand from foreign countries for the produce of Hungary, have of late years caused many of the nomadic establishments\* on the "Pusztas" to take root in the shape of substantial farm-houses with extensive offices, around which garden and arable cultivation are gradually spreading, but still bearing no suitable proportion to the capabilities of the soil. In every case, however, care is taken to preserve the dependence of the "Puszta" on the manorial estate, and the "Sállasz" is only entrusted to the servant of the proprietor, and not farmed out to an independent cultivator. It was to remedy this state of things that many of the laws enacted in the late Diet were passed. Leases have by some of these been made safe contracts, and this will doubtless soon change the face of the country and augment the revenues of the landowners. We have already seen that their inability to pay a land-tax was more evident than their disinclination to equalize a burden which is so unfairly distributed. It cannot form any part of the policy of an enlightened government to deprive such a country of the benefits of foreign trade, which must go hand in hand with the internal improvements if a reasonable revenue is to be drawn from it.

The improvement of the channel offered by the river Save, connected with a suitable passage through the Julian Alps to the Adriatic, besides conferring the boon on Hungary that we have indicated, and rendering its resources available to

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\* *Sállasz*, from *Chûlet*.

the government, would bring two provinces into play which have hitherto been a burden to the rest of the empire, to which they ought to prove the most valuable auxiliaries: we allude to the Military Frontier and Dalmatia.

The river Save, which is destined to become a grand thoroughfare of European trade, runs for nearly the whole length of its navigable course through the Military Frontier. A long portion of its left bank belongs to Turkey, and it thus offers the surest and simplest channel of trade for two empires with the Adriatic. The shortest land-passage from Carlatadt on the river Culpa, which is at the head of this line of navigation, to the sea, leads through the Military Frontier; so that all the trade that was opened with Bosnia, Servia and the Lower Danube would form a profitable transit-trade for Austria.

In our table of land-tax receipts the contribution from the Military Frontier is set down at 1,000,240 florins. It would seem from this circumstance that the Austrian government looked forward to a period when, besides supporting the number of troops required from these military colonies, the country really should afford a land-tax in money, in preparation of which the present assessment was made. In the table which we subjoin (No. XVIII.) of the detailed expenditure of the army, we find a charge of 2,692,313 florins on account of the military armaments in this province, and, what is still more extraordinary, a second charge of 982,762 florins for the civil branch of the same province. It is therefore clear that the land-tax, which is with difficulty raised from the families of the colonists in the Military Frontier, is altogether consumed by the cost of the present expensive mode of administration; while the land, which we have described as in part containing the finest soil in Europe, is unequal to the maintenance of the body to which it is now sacrificed. Were trade allowed its free course, and the mountainous tracts fostered a little in the manner that is adopted in Tyrol, the value of this territory, which for the greatest part belongs to the Crown, would rise in a proportion that would not only cause it to yield in the shape of taxes a large amount of revenue, but which would enrich the government with a capital sum, that in a few years it would be enabled to realise, and which would cover, if it did

not soon exceed, the amount of the national debt as stated in our table.

The fact that this natural channel of trade for Austria, between the sea and the richest provinces of the empire, was altogether overlooked in the treaty concluded by Lord Beaule in 1839, is a singular fact in the annals of diplomacy. On the part of the English plenipotentiary and his agent, it may be explained by the circumstance of their not possessing the necessary information here tendered, and this would alone justify the oversight: the facts will however enable our readers to appreciate the value of the Tables that we are able here to communicate. On the side of the Austrian government, it is not improbable that the senseless outcry raised for party purposes at home, that all treaties with foreign powers would prove of no avail to any party, unless our corn-laws were unconditionally abrogated, met with sincere credence. It was therefore not unnatural for the Austrian government to believe that, whatever good might be drawn for other purposes from the treaty of Milan, it was not a commercial treaty; since it wanted the characteristic which all Lord Palmerston's agents declared to be indispensable to a commercial treaty. In this manner both nations have been deprived for nearly three years of the advantages that would have arisen from opening this line of traffic,—a step that would most powerfully have influenced the whole bearing of the dispute in the East, which arose since the conclusion of the treaty of Milan.

In conclusion we may remark that, as the land unquestionably forms a portion of the capital of the country, and in agricultural states the leading portion, a land-tax where capital in other forms is exempted from taxation is a hardship upon the owners of the soil. The system of the Austrian finances provides, as far as circumstances will permit, for this difficulty. The industry-tax, as we shall see, affects trade nearly in the same way that the land-tax does agriculture. The capital invested in the funds is alone untaxed; and under the circumstances of its being originally (and still to a great extent) foreign capital, it would have been both injudicious to discourage its employment in this manner, and would still not have compensated the landowner. As the direct taxes

taken together form a description of property-tax, of course, when capital so far accumulates that a large portion of the debt is held by Austrians (and there is reason to believe that this is even now the case), it would only be just to include such investments in the cycles of taxation. At present the government reaps the benefit of the high figure at which the funds stand from the exemption of this description of property.

The expense of collecting the land-tax in Austria is not heavy, if the outlay for the survey be not taken into account, which in 1837 had reached twelve millions of florins. In Lombardy and Venice the receipt is farmed out; in Hungary and Transylvania the tax is gathered by the local authorities, and in the other provinces it is collected by receivers, who are allowed two per cent. on the sums they deliver. The total cost of collection is stated not to exceed  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.,—certainly a low amount.

We have already said that houses in the country are included in the Italian provinces in the land-tax; this is likewise the case in Tyrol. In Hungary, Transylvania and the Military Frontier there is no tax upon houses. But in all the other provinces, and especially in the Bohemian baths and provincial capitals, houses of all kinds are rated apart. The tax in the country is not heavy on dwelling-houses that are not let out in lodgings, and varies from a few pence upon the smallest to about 3*l.* 10*s.* per annum for a house of thirty rooms. But in the towns, where it is the custom to let floors in almost every house, the tax levied is much higher, and, with the tax for registering, is said to amount to 30 per cent. on the income derived from a house. Of the whole sum raised in 1837, and which amounted to 3,787,447 florins, two-fifths were drawn from Vienna. New houses are exempted from the tax for different terms, varying according to the nature of the house from eight to twenty years. Houses under repair are also free.

The legacy-duty is properly placed amongst the direct taxes on property; no distinction being made between real and personal, and both being only liable to this duty when inheritances pass out of a family. If the possession inherited be already taxed to the value of 5 per cent., the duty is only



5 per cent.; otherwise (as for instance on furniture, stock, etc.) it is chargeable at 10 per cent. The church and conventual foundations pay a fixed sum annually in lieu of the legacy-duty.

The industry-tax is paid by all persons exercising a trade or calling from which they derive the means of support. Physicians and persons holding appointments under government or in the established institutions for education, authors (not publishers or editors of journals) and artists, are exempted from this tax; but private teachers and the holders of private academies are liable to it.

This tax is an extension of the right of licensing claimed for many trades in every country. Bankers and manufacturers are rated as high as £150 per annum. But a difference is made on the French principle in the rate, according to the population of the place in which any trade is carried on. Vienna and the provincial capitals are of course rated highest. In the country towns there is an exception in favour of Tyrol, and the duty is much modified in favour of the Italian provinces, in which there exist subdivisions of trade; as well as a subdivision of labour in agriculture that is unknown in the other parts of the empire, and indeed is found nowhere else in Europe. The sum raised from the industrial classes of so large an empire, abounding in productions of all kinds, is so small, that this tax in the abstract cannot be looked upon as burdensome. It becomes so, however, in a high degree, from the principle it carries with it of entitling those who pay it to what is called protection. The government assumes the power of judging how many tradesmen are wanted in every line in each town; and when the number is extended, remonstrances are addressed by those in possession, who fear that their interests are betrayed. In this manner a most iniquitous system of monopoly is introduced, under which both the consumer, and eventually the trading classes themselves, suffer, in consequence of the security and negligence which such a state of things induces. The banks and most of the large warehouses at Vienna close regularly from twelve till three o'clock in the day, and the want of regularity and attention on the part of the tradesmen indicates everywhere the absence of competition. This enervating and demoralizing

effect is dearly purchased at the small sum of 2,552,335 florins, or about £250,000 annually. This sum appears almost incredibly low, when it is considered that labourers, pedlars, clerks, and the servants of companies or of individuals in larger establishments contribute their share, in addition to all the trading and manufacturing classes; but in the assessment of the industry-tax, the profits, from which it is supposed to be levied, are in general estimated very low, and thus, excepting in cases where personal vanity intervenes, a lower class is usually assigned than strict inquiry would authorize.

In the Italian provinces a poll-tax has been continued from the earliest periods, which more than compensates for the partial exemption from the industry-tax. Strangers residing in the Military Frontier provinces likewise pay this tax, which brought 1,274,726 florins to the treasury in 1837.

The Jews, besides being subject to many restrictions differing in the various provinces, pay a poll-tax, an income-tax, and an excise-duty on the meat killed for their particular use (*Koscherfleisch*), as well as on the candles lighted upon the sabbath and other festivals. In Poland the duty on a candle consumed in this manner is 1 florin or 2 shillings per annum, and as the tax is raised by farmers, the control is a sharp one which the farmer keeps upon his neighbours. In 1837 the Emperor allowed a reduction of the duty on meat; and the whole receipt, which usually reaches 1,200,000 florins, did not exceed 966,939 florins.

The cyclus of direct taxes which supply the place of an income-tax is completed by what is called the class-tax, levied on all revenues derived from other sources than those here enumerated; including consequently money drawn from other countries, excepting the revenues of strangers spent in the empire. This tax is raised according to a graduated scale, varying from  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. for revenues of 100 florins per annum, to 20 per cent. on revenues of £15,000 per annum. In addition to the difficulty of controlling returns of this kind, a remarkable exception, to which we have already alluded, contributes to lessen the sum raised under this head, and which in 1837 only amounted to 787 florins 37 kreutzers. The property vested in the public national funds is exempted from all taxation, as the surest means of preventing its being

lodged in the stocks of other countries. This in some measure accounts for the high figure which many of the continental funds have of late years obtained in the money market. Salaries of civil officers, and the pay of the military and naval services, are likewise exempt.

The total sum raised in 1837, under the head of direct taxes, amounted to 49,007,014 florins 5 kreutzers; so that the expense of raising it was 1,847,846 florins, or about  $3\frac{1}{2}$  percent.,—an exceedingly small sum, if the variety of the objects taxed and the extent of surface on which they are scattered be considered. We shall hereafter see that the expense of the survey for the control of the land-tax amounts to 700,000 florins annually, and is made a separate charge, as being but of a temporary nature. The great source of economy is the regulation by which the control of the estimates and receipts is entrusted to the authorities of the provinces and circles, whose salaries appear of course under the heads of the branches of justice, or of the civil service to which they are attached.

This survey of the direct taxes affords us a valuable insight into the political and social organization of property in the empire, and of the springs of wealth which it contains. The structure of the landed interests is of a nature which gives manual labour a direction towards agriculture, in consequence of the great division of the land. The government is besides interested in the prosperity of the landowner, as the payer of the most prolific and most easily collected branch of the revenue. We see him heavily taxed in his property, and a second time by the *octroi* of the towns and the excise in the produce of the land. Considering the immense majority which the portion of the population thus engaged in agricultural industry forms, it appears hard that these should be called upon to make any further sacrifice in favour of the small minority of their fellow-citizens; but such is the case: the monopoly in trade allowed in return for the industry-tax raises the price of every article of necessity, while it increases the cost of cultivating the soil on which such heavy burdens are levied. Then comes the hardship of forcing manufactures prematurely, which operates prejudicially on the landowner and the greater number of consumers in a double manner. The exclusion of foreign wares by a prohibitive tariff deprives them of the fair

benefit of competition ; while capital is, by the protection afforded by this tariff, abstracted from its first legitimate employment when superabundant, that is to say, from the improvement of the means of transport.

Good roads, canals and railroads would both yield a good return to the parties who engaged in such speculations if trade were left free, and would raise the value of the produce of the country by facilitating its exportation, while they would cheapen the return in manufactured wares obtained for such exports. The encouragement of manufactures before the means of transport are perfected and capital has accumulated, is clearly a false principle, under which the country and the revenue must equally suffer.

But let us inquire, further, to what extent the government is directly interested in the prosperity of the landed interest, besides the sum it draws as land-tax.

The crown-property in Austria is of various descriptions, and is legally separated from the private property of the Emperor, being, as the budget which we annex shows, unreservedly applied to state or public services. The most extensive possessions of the Crown lie in Hungary, as the country in which the feudal rights of the sovereign have been most carefully preserved as an inherent part of the ancient constitution. The royal burghs, the mining towns and districts, large tracts held in fief on the tenure of military service by colonists, such as the Cumans, Haiduks and Iasyges, and estates that have been from time immemorial, or since the conquests over the Turks, considered as crown-property, make up a list of possessions capable of yielding more wealth and more power than any Crown in Europe but one can boast. The Crown is, moreover, heir-at-law to all noble families which become extinct for want of feudal successors ; but ancient custom prescribes that fiefs resumed in this manner shall be given to other meritorious subjects. The tithes raised by the fiscal representatives of the Crown in Hungary, and in the Saxon province of Transylvania, the greater portion of the extensive forests in Slavonia and Croatia, together with the Military Frontier, and salt-works in all parts of the empire, are crown-property. The management of such extensive royal rights cannot be otherwise than difficult and expensive. The

salt-mines form a distinct branch. But when the reader learns that single estates not unfrequently contain an area of 100,000 acres, sometimes of the richest arable and pasture land, he will be surprised to hear that the total gain drawn from these possessions, united with the tithes and all other *droits* of the Crown in Hungary, excepting the Salines, does not exceed £200,000 per annum. The crown-lands in Galicia are likewise very considerable, although the policy of selling them, adopted of late years, has reduced their number. In Bohemia, Moravia and the Austrian duchies, the domains are also considerable in extent; and in the Lombard and Venetian provinces, where they mostly consist of church lands confiscated by the French, the revenue drawn from them is not inconsiderable. Still the budget shows us from all a return not exceeding £330,000 for 1837, which, even admitting that 2000 servants in 250 bailiwicks eat up one-half of the revenue of these possessions, is an incredibly small sum.

But these lands are by no means the only ones in the cultivation of which the government is interested.

The members of the Imperial family are all landed-proprietors, and the Emperor has very large estates in Lower Austria, which are managed with skill and care. The members of the Imperial family are mostly patrons of agriculture, and on the estates of the Archduke Charles, which are so extensive that his name does not appear upon the civil list with his brothers, an agricultural college is munificently endowed. These illustrious individuals are therefore deeply interested in any system that tends to heighten the value of agricultural produce, or to lower the price of the objects which it must purchase.

But the government and the nation at large are interested in other respects, being landed-proprietors in two different quarters which are not usually introduced into the budget, although they properly belong to it, without any remarkable extension of its common acceptation.

Two tables given in our Appendix, Nos. VIII. and IX., are particularly valuable, as they show a side of the financial system which is involved in no small mystery. In No. VIII. the disbursements of a consolidated fund, to which the revenues of extensive estates and various other sources of income

are assigned, and the deficit in which is made up by a special charge in the budget, are shown to have amounted in 1837 to 51,719,122 florins. The estates and real property assigned to this fund are derived for the most part from the lands belonging to convents, monasteries and other clerical foundations, which were suppressed by the emperor Joseph II.,—a second revolutionary measure, not inferior in boldness and magnitude to that emperor's manner of dealing with the landed proprietors. The estimated value in money of these estates, we see by the same table, is 204,244,068 florins; and it must be recollected, that this valuation is made according to the revenue the lands in question now yield, not according to that which might be drawn from them. Statistical writers have estimated that the revenue derived from the crown-lands represents a capital of 88 millions of florins. The value of the estates and real property of the "Political Fund" is therefore three times as great at present. No. IX. of our tables shows the revenue and expenditure of the corporations of towns in all the provinces except Hungary. The value of the corporation-lands is here made to equal a capital of 78,215,231 florins; to which if those of Hungary were added, the sum might, on a moderate estimate, be raised at least one-half. The value of the lands furnishing the Military Fund may be estimated at 100 millions of florins. Let us now add the lands of the Church in all the provinces, the tithes and the revenues of other Hungarian foundations which are not specified, and, after comparing their value with the amount of capital stated in our Table III. to be invested in trade and manufactures (not in manufactures alone), we would ask, whether or not the agricultural interests have a right, even as far as the government is concerned, to predominate in Austria?—whether from any other side, by means of the greatest study and care, it is possible to infuse so much strength, comfort and enjoyment into all classes of society, to give stability to the government and to raise public and private credit, as can be done by the slightest step that tends to raise the value of land and to facilitate the sale of its produce? Until Austria shall, by the accumulation of savings, have acquired a floating capital to suffice for the judicious management of her extensive cultivable surface,

much time must elapse. It will last still longer, until the means of transport are constructed, on which the value of the best-managed soil depends. How long will it then endure, before the country has collected the mass of capital necessary to invest in successful manufacturing enterprises, before prudence would allow of any legislative measure pressing on the landed in favour of other interests?

We confess we rejoice at being able to furnish the materials by which the opinion here promulgated may be tested, as we feel that nothing is so advantageous as a complete survey of such weighty interests, so inseparably locked in each other's prosperity. The political economist feels, too, unusual confidence when basing a practical application of the principles of the science upon undisputed facts; and no less authority than we are here able to show, would, we feel, produce conviction in the minds of our readers, when we venture to criticise the financial policy of one of the leading states of Europe.

Closely connected with the subject of the crown, corporation and national landed-property are the mines. We have had frequent opportunities of expressing our opinion of the value of the Austrian mines of native steel for mechanical purposes. It is a serious loss to the manufacturing world that their annual produce is so insignificant, and that it is destined to no worthier purpose than to make nails and ploughshares. We have seen of late years an attempt to make rails of this splendid metal,—of course under the sanction of the high duties on the foreign inferior material, but still further encouraged by the difficulty of transporting so weighty a mass to the coast. From the block shown us as a specimen, many a Sheffield cutler would have been delighted to cut razors. This is one of the many deplorable results of taking an ideal standard of value in place of the market price, and of undervaluing the good old rule known even to Hudibras. The results are shown in the miserable condition of the inhabitants of the mining districts, as stated in our last number, and in the small sum which the minister of the finances has at his disposal for the use of the government. The loss to the nation, in the dear price of tools, and the consequent pressure upon industry, especially on manufactures of all kinds, cannot be reckoned. The statement of profit and loss on the

mines, given in our Appendix, No. XVIII., will bear us out in making these remarks, with all who have had an opportunity of appreciating the value of Austrian mining produce.

That, under the existing circumstances, which tend at once to depress agriculture and to prevent the accumulation of capital, it should be the desire of the government to sell the estates of the Crown, will excite little surprise. An ordinance of some standing, issued by the late Emperor, desired annual sales to be effected for the benefit of the sinking fund; but this principle was not long adhered to. In the budget for 1837, the proceeds of the sales of crown-lands appear among the extraordinary receipts for the current year. The sum obtained in that year for estates sold was 3,419,637 florins, and the total sum raised by the alienation of the landed property of the Crown since 1819 amounted to 24,247,174 florins. Of this, ten millions were raised in Hungary and three millions in Galicia.

An Englishman, attached to the constitution of his country, will not easily find fault with the alienation of the estates of the Crown; but, independently of the very different situation of things in Austria, the advantage of this policy in a financial point of view is very doubtful. Had the capital which was paid for the purchase of these lands been, under the encouragement of long leases, or of leases for ever, employed in improving the mode of cultivating them, the situation of both parties would have been materially bettered. The revenue would have risen, and the nation would more rapidly have accumulated capital; but here, as at every step, the vicious circle produced by restrictions and prohibitions again meets us. Of what use would the surplus produce be to the grower, unless he were permitted to exchange it at a fair rate for foreign productions? and with what countries can he thus barter, but with such as are both populous and rich enough to manufacture more than they need for home consumption, and whose wants are of that description which an agricultural state can supply. With Germany, Russia, Turkey, or Spain, no exchange of the kind can be made. Those countries produce raw produce sufficient to meet their own demands, and have no superfluity of manufactures to export. Such an exchange can only advantageously be made with



France, Belgium, and above all with England. But the Austrian tariff has hitherto prevented all such interchange: it has discouraged the subject at home from producing, because he has no foreign market; and it has lessened his income and his comforts, by depriving him of many advantages which he is able to pay for, if they be offered to him at a reasonable price. It is true that our own corn-laws long co-operated in producing this result.

If the expense of the frontier guard, which in 1837 consisted of 17,320 men, amounting to 5,255,209 florins, be deducted from the net customs' receipts, we find that the foreign trade of Austria yielded 10,400,000 florins, or about £1,400,000 sterling, to the exchequer.

Such a sum, raised upon a population of 36,000,000 of inhabitants, fully warrants the observations we have made. But if the evil be followed up in the manner we have pointed out to its full extent, and the loss be calculated accruing to the land from the repression of its natural branches of industry by the dearth and badness of tools, and the abstraction of capital from legitimate modes of investment, to cause its employment in less natural and unproductive lines,—it is clear that, instead of reaping any gain, not only the nation at large, but even the revenue is a sufferer by these receipts.

Similar losses arising from similar causes may of course be proved in nearly every state, but the calculation is not the less true in any particular case. It is, besides, not always easy to collect such a mass of materials as we have here been able to employ, and the value of which will, we are sure, be appreciated.

Of the indirect taxes, the Excise, or, as it is called in Austria, the "Consumption-tax," is the most productive. It is levied on malt, beer and spirituous liquors, wine and all provisions consumed in towns at whose gates it is taken, like the French *Octroi*. Its amount in 1837 was 20,547,717 florins.

The salt-duty, or rather the profits of the salt monopoly in the same year, exceeded by a small sum the proceeds of the excise, and by one-third the amount of the customs' duties. The net proceeds of the tobacco monopoly prove equal to three-fifths of the amount of revenue raised from foreign trade.

These two state-monopolies afford a striking instance of the

principle upon which indirect taxation is based, and of its frequent advantages over direct taxation. If it be liable to little doubt, that a free trade in salt, accompanied with an excise duty levied in the usual manner, would both bring in a larger amount of revenue, and furnish the majority of consumers with the article at a cheaper rate,—it must not be overlooked, that the government, in its capacity of trader, takes great pains to fulfil its obligations. Stores are erected in many places where private speculators would not easily be induced to establish them; and many a mountain district and remote village is furnished with this indispensable article at a price which can only be afforded when large profits are reaped elsewhere.

In considering the impost in a financial point of view, it must be apparent, that no mining company, or set of companies, could carry on a speculation of the kind if such a tax were raised on them at the mines. An advance of more than two millions sterling annually, which is now raised without complaint from the consumer, would paralyse the efforts of the most active and enterprising speculator. The growth of tobacco on these terms would be equally impracticable. Even a monopoly of the domestic sale,—the worst manner that in general can be devised of encouraging the sale of goods,—if but decently conducted, produces, as we see in the case of the Austrian salt and tobacco monopolies, so large a revenue, by simply transferring the payment of the duty from the producer or the merchant to the consumer. The reason is, that the latter pays his contribution with ease in pence and farthings, which, if demanded in hundreds and thousands of pounds, could never be brought together. If the monopoly were extended over the tobacco grown for exportation, it would, like the opium monopoly in India, operate as a tax upon that particular trade, which would oppress the growers in their competition with other countries. The government leaves Hungary, as the producing country, out of the pale; and large quantities are thence shipped to France and exported to other countries.

Upon this principle alone is it possible to explain the very small amount raised by the government in the shape of duties on foreign trade. It is true that the variety of soils and cli-

mates within the empire furnishes to the inhabitants many of those productions which other countries are obliged to import. Thus wine and oil, rice and spirits, from the rude whiskey of Poland to the choice liqueurs of Lombardy and Dalmatia, dye stuffs and materials for chemical preparations, silk, grain, timber, wool, flax and hemp, are not only produced for the supply of the inhabitants, and circulate (with the exception of Hungary) untaxed within the empire, but afford a large surplus that supplies foreign lands. Whatever increases the produce of the land, furnishes at the same time plenty to the inhabitants and the means of purchasing luxuries of foreign production. But in a country so situated, not over-peopled and capable of an immense agricultural development,—where the necessities and, to a certain degree, the luxuries of a poor man's life are so easily attained,—the only way to induce industry is to follow the course pointed out by nature, and towards which alone he feels any pressure. If the government assists him to sell dear and to buy cheap, he can afford of course a larger amount from his profits in the shape of taxation.

The tolls taken on roads, bridges, canals, etc. amounted in 1837 to 1,956,732 florins, and are properly placed in the budget; because the outlay, in ready money at least, for the construction and repair of the roads is furnished by the government. The heaviest part of the expense is however defrayed by the landholders (noble or peasant) who furnish the labourers. This branch of revenue is evidently not without an intimate connexion with the state of trade; and even the poor peasant, who works his number of days in carting and breaking stones, has surely his claim for remuneration if the state-coffers can afford it; nor should the sacrifice he is thus called upon to make be undervalued, in the estimation of the probable gains of any set of speculators. The sum at present entered as pure gain in the budget is of course only so, because the laborious class makes a present of its time and work to others, whose interests, as we have seen, are so diametrically opposed to its own.

This consideration is the more pressing; as, while the new, and in our days indispensable, acquisition of railroads threatens to take from the ordinary roads the most profitable portion of

their traffic, any artificial restrictions that tend to diminish the revenue by which the roads ought to be kept up are the more oppressive.

The Post is an institution which more than any other will feel the influence of the introduction of machinery for the purposes of travelling. Hitherto the system usual on the continent, by which the postmaster is invested with an official character and charged with the execution of prescribed duties, has prevailed in Austria, in opposition to that of competition which is usual in England. One disadvantage arising from this arrangement, which was perhaps necessary in the infancy of such an institution, but which has now evidently outlived itself, was felt on the introduction of the steam navigation on the Danube, of which the government could not avail itself without taking away emoluments from its officers: the public felt the loss, both of so rapid a means of communication for correspondence, and of the salutary influence and encouragement which the government might have exercised upon the new undertaking, to which it would have given regularity and increased activity. The opposition in which the Danube steamboat company was thus falsely placed to the post and the government, has materially retarded the development of this most useful establishment, while the company of the Austrian Lloyds at Trieste has been greatly extended since it obtained the carriage of the mails to the Levant. We are enabled to give the details of the traffic through the post-office for the year 1837. (Appendix, Table V.)

The postage of letters is charged in Austria according to three rates,—the highest embracing every distance beyond six posts, or sixty English miles, inclusive. Down to the present year the charge for every letter that was carried this distance was 14 kreutzers, or something less than sixpence; for which sum it was forwarded from Pavia to Czernowitz in Poland, or upwards of 1200 miles; and, when the immense extent of the empire is considered, and the fact that no two provincial capitals lie within this distance of each other, this sum must be regarded as the uniform charge. There were, however, two lower grades for shorter distances. In the present year the charge for postage has been reduced; the highest charge now being 12 kreutzers, or less than fivepence for six posts and over.

With respect to the management of the post-office, a great deal more might be said that would not redound to the praise of the establishment. Thus, an oppressive regulation causes a number of foreign letters addressed to the provinces to pass through Vienna. The existence of what the French call a *cabinet noir*, for the inspection of the correspondence of unknown or suspected persons, is made so little a secret, that letters which have been clumsily opened are constantly forwarded with the post-office signet in lieu of the original seal which has been displaced. Nor would the most ingenious cypher avail any person who desired to conceal his views; for the *cypher cabinet* at Vienna, which is composed of a numerous body of confidential individuals, unrivalled for knowledge of languages and for skill in detecting cyphers, is in unceasing employment; and no repose is allowed by day or night to its toil in finding a tongue for the missives of the minister, or in unravelling the disguised communications of others. A little advantage, in point of time, is gained by the government, the police and the privileged newspapers, by delay in the distribution of all foreign papers and other communications, until the day following their arrival at Vienna. The foreign ambassadors and other privileged persons are exempted from the operation of this regulation.

The stamp-duty is not, as in England, exclusively a tax upon the transfer of property or on the exercise of credit. All documents used in courts of justice in proof of any allegation, all official copies of documents, and petitions or representations addressed to all public offices, are required to be stamped in Austria; the amount of stamp required being regulated by the rank of the party using it. Thus noblemen, citizens and peasants have their respective stamps, but are only required to use them on such occasions. Foreign newspapers are required to bear a small stamp. The sum received under this head in 1837 was 3,553,628 florins. This duty, and the revenue raised through the post-office, are not less dependent ultimately on the state of trade, than are the other branches which we analysed above. The improved communications, which form the great desideratum of commerce, would encourage traffic, and would at the same time cause more activity in other branches.

Our Table VI. showing the profits of the Lottery, in its minute details, will also be found of interest. The lottery in the Austrian states is on the French plan, with ninety numbers, of which two, three, or more, drawn together, give a claim for the different prizes. The principal objection raised to this plan is directed against the very small stakes which are allowed to be risked, and which tend to rob the poor of their savings for a phantom of the most delusive kind. In 1837, of ten millions of florins risked in stakes which did not average more than threepence each, six millions were lost for the players. The considerable sum drawn from this branch of revenue no doubt makes it difficult to comply with the general wish of philanthropic men that it should be abandoned, but one most dangerous source of demoralization will disappear when it is given up. The private lotteries, which have become a regular source of trade for some years past, are less injurious, because the price of the tickets is higher, being for the most part fixed at five florins, or ten shillings. In these lotteries, to the value of some estate the gains of the broker and the duty are added, and the estate is then played for as if equal in value to the whole. Sometimes prizes of plate, valued at an equally high rate, or of money, are added, to render the scheme more attractive. In a general way neither the public nor the landowner are benefited by these speculations. Investments in foreign lotteries are strictly prohibited.

If we turn to the other side of the budget, and ask what the country receives in return for the sums which it furnishes by taxation, we find that the services rendered by the government embrace a wide range. The plan of the civil service resembles, in its minor details, that of the French. The centralized provinces are divided into circles, which correspond in some degree with the departments in France; as the Préfet does with the Austrian Captain of a Circle. In the circle authorities, the civil judiciary as well as the administrative faculties are combined. Thus the duties of the quarter-sessions of magistrates in England, as well as of the vestry and grand jury, are here entrusted to a stationary body of functionaries, who stand under the provincial governments in the respective capital towns. The provincial governments correspond immediately with those branches of the ministry at

Vienna to which their respective duties refer. We have noticed the economy which this arrangement allows, when speaking of the receipt of the direct taxes; as the powers of police with which the captain of the circle is invested enable him to support, with the civil and even with the military power, the fiscal as well as the judicial authority of the government. In the Italian provinces this officer is entitled *Delegator*. A refractory or tardy payer of the taxes is usually brought to reason by having one or more soldiers placed at free quarter in his house until he has discharged his arrear. A criminal, after passing his preliminary examinations before the officer of the circle, is sent to the central court at the provincial capital for trial. The captain of the circle has the control of all the manorial courts, which, as has been observed, are in full action, but from which the appeal goes to him. The economy we alluded to when speaking of the collection of the land-tax, results however more from the intimate knowledge of every man's affairs which the circle authorities are bound to acquire, (and which cannot escape them, when it is considered that every movement, whether of the persons or properties of the subject, must be licensed by them,)—than from the fact that a small number of persons suffices to do the duty. The number of civilians is far from small, but this intimate acquaintance with the concerns of the inhabitants, and the unlimited disposal of the formidable civil and military guardians of the peace, disarms opposition and precludes subterfuge. The economy is likewise, from obvious reasons, confined to the direct taxes. The levying of the indirect imposts, or rather the contending with the millions who are interested in contravening the regulations, shows a very different statement; inasmuch as, of 34,300 civil officers of a certain rank, and 91,880 servants, guards, etc. in the civil service of the state in 1837, 16,200 of the former and 83,000 of the latter are employed in the department of the finances. Thus a force equal to the standing army with which Great Britain in time of peace keeps half the civilized globe in subjection, is employed in raising the revenue in Austria. The total sum raised in 1837, under the head of indirect taxes, was 108,179,084 florins; and as the netto sum accounted for in the budget amounts to 81,326,734 florins, the expenses of collecting must

have been equal to 26,852,350 florins. As we have seen, it cost but 1,847,846 florins to raise the direct taxes.

The central offices for the financial department, or, as we should call it, the treasury, have three branches, the "Allgemeine Hofkammer," the "Hofkammer" for Hungary, and the "Thesauriat" for Transylvania. The first-named bureau has two presidents, each with a salary of the first class, equalling with other emoluments £2000 per annum, three vice-presidents with £900, and twenty-nine councillors with salaries of £500 to £600. The Hungarian president has 10,000 florins (£1000), his vice-president 4000 florins, and fourteen councillors 2000 florins each as salary. The Transylvanian branch has a treasurer with 4200 florins, and six councillors, whose salaries amount to 10,000 florins annually. This office is at Herrmanstadt.

A similar division is observable in the administrative, or, as they are called in Austria, "political" central offices. The united Chancery is the centre of the administration in all the provinces, with the exception of Hungary and Transylvania. All local independence is so completely annihilated in the provinces, that not the smallest step can be taken in the remotest parts of the empire without the control of the Court Chancery, whose president is, properly speaking, the minister of the home department; his salary is 27,660 florins annually. Two second chancellors and a vice-chancellor stand under him, with 14,000 florins, 11,000, and 9000 florins, and thirteen councillors, with a total of 68,200 florins annually as salaries. The Hungarian chancellor has a salary of 23,160 florins, and has two vice-chancellors and twelve councillors under him. The Transylvanian chancery has a president with 15,160 florins, and six councillors, enjoying together 23,200 florins annually.

The total of the list of functionaries in the treasury-office at Vienna is 604, with 153 servants and 191 pensioners, and that of their salaries is 645,354 florins. The three chanceries of the interior employ 385 civilians, with 68 servants, and 238 pensioners, receiving annually 737,959 florins.

The department of Justice has also its three divisions. The High Commission of Justice, with a branch at Verona, has its seat at Vienna. The president, who is like the minister of justice in other continental countries, has the control of all



the courts in the empire, except those of Hungary and Transylvania. The influence of this office is that which is the most deplored (perhaps with the exception of the Board of Education) in the whole government system of Austria. Screened by the censorship from all direct control by appeals to public opinion, and wielding the whole weight of a centralised chain of official satellites trained in unhesitating obedience,—reviewing in secret, and with speed or slowly, as it may seem to suit the circumstances, proceedings that were carried on in secret,—equally formidable to the servant of the Crown who is suspected of wavering in his obedience to the system of the moment, as to the delinquent against the public morals or security, and in both cases sure to strike the victim unerringly, whether by direct or indirect means,—this office, which is no court of appeal, but the bureau of a minister, is the source whence the spirit of unity is infused into the judicial administration of the empire. It interprets the laws at will, as the sentences passed by any court are not admitted as precedents, or allowed to be binding on other judges. The senate of Verona is said in this respect to be occasionally not a little troublesome, as the Italians are too matter-of-fact lawyers to be easily reconciled to such a system; and their inquiries as to which is the true interpretation of the law, after various and conflicting decisions from different parts of the empire have received confirmation at Vienna, have more than once caused embarrassment. The late Emperor had however a firm conviction, that on the manner in which justice was administered depended the stability of a government, as well as that his government was altogether based upon the system of the "*Oberste Justizstelle*," and this conviction he has recorded in large gilt letters upon the principal gate of his palace and of the capital, in the inscription "*Justitia regnorum fundamentum*."

The president of this office has a salary of 22,000 florins; two vice-presidents draw 17,000 florins, and thirty-two councillors 156,200 florins annually; eighty-one individuals in all form the bureau, with fifteen servants, and the pension list numbers sixty. The total expenditure is 281,718 florins.

The highest tribunal for Hungary is the "Septemviral Tafel." Its president, under the Viceroy, is the *Judex Curie*,

whose salary is 14,000 florins; twenty-one assessors, representing the nobility, prelates, gentry and the mining department, form the court, with two secretaries and one servant. The total expenses of this court in 1837 were 45,268 florins.

The highest court of appeal for Transylvania is the Transylvanian Chancery at Vienna. The administration of justice throughout the empire, with exclusion of the local magistracy on nobles' estates, employs, according to our table No. XI., 4499 civil officers, and 996 servants, at a cost of 3,542,664 florins. A special commission, consisting of four councillors, with thirteen clerks, is appointed to take cognizance of all causes in which the military are concerned.

The police stands with undefined, and indeed with unlimited, power by the side of the administration of justice, whose functions only begin when the police releases an accused person from its grasp; while no court has authority to demand more speed or more lenity on the part of the police towards parties only under accusation, or to entertain any complaint against its proceedings. The president of this formidable tribunal has likewise the direction of the censorship, and the business is conducted in two offices at Vienna. Attached to the head bureau, or that in which the censorship is conducted, there is a curious and extremely extensive library of confiscated books and of manuscripts that have not been returned to their owners. The anxiety with which the productions of the mind are watched over in Austria is a high compliment to the power of the press, and an acknowledgment that, however formidable the means of repression may be which a ruler has the power to wield, yet that public opinion, if well directed to a particular aim, is sure to come victorious out of every struggle. In the case of the censorship, it is strange that the simple question of property should be so deliberately set aside, as is the case. Neither the author who devotes his time, nor the bookseller who advances his capital in the production of a work, is considered in the least as worthy of regard. A manuscript is retained three months, six months, or a year or two, at the option of the person to whom it is entrusted for revision, without regard to any remonstrance, or the slightest chance of indemnity for the loss of the occasion, or the abuse of confidence by a lite-

rary rival. Another oversight appears to us scarcely less strange, which is the disregard of the utility of allowing discontent occasionally to find vent through the press; whereas the repression of all expression of public opinion exposes a state, as is well known, to far more dangerous gusts of popular violence, of which often no timely warning has been received, and which must be suffered to rage in unmitigated fury, or can only be checked by the most invidious exercise of power. The president of the police is usually a nobleman of high rank, although his duties are of a most harassing and disagreeable kind. His salary is 19,223 florins annually, besides other emoluments; and he is assisted in the capital by three councillors, who receive together 17,000 florins, and twenty-eight secretaries and clerks. The total expense of the two central bureaus amounts to 153,686 florins.

The total cost of the police-establishment throughout the empire, in 1837, was 1,992,326 florins, or £199,200. It was divided as follows:—thirty-three police directions and commissariats in the larger towns, with 515 civil officers, 149 servants and 276 pensioners, cost 577,150 florins. The cost of twenty-five offices of the censorship of the press, with forty-nine officers, fourteen servants and fifteen pensioners, was 28,907 florins. The outlay for secret police was 322,118 florins; in 1836 it amounted to 298,434 florins.

The Gendarmerie and “Guardia di Sicurezza” formed a regiment of cavalry, counting forty-six officers and 1665 men, with 294 pensioners, at a cost of 584,480 florins. The foot-police corps numbered 3033 men, and cost 479,670 florins. In addition to this force, the communal police in Lombardy numbered 5088 men, and it was intended to raise it to 7500 men. This last-named body receives pay from the government only when employed as escorts, or in assisting in judicial perquisitions.

Of course the numerical force here described gives but a very inadequate idea of the moral or even of the physical resources which the police of Austria can command, and indeed bears no proportion to the number of guards required to ensure the levy of the indirect taxes, which we have stated to be 17,320 men. This preventive force is, however, equally in the service of the police, if only indirectly, and serves to guard

the extensive land frontier against dangerous characters in both respects. The standing-army, exceeding 400,000 men, most advantageously disposed through a population exceeding but by one-fifth that of the British Isles, must likewise be taken into account.

The moral influence exerted through the unfettered patronage of 130,000 places in the civil service, of high and low degree, and by the reduction of the standard of merit,—by which all claims, not only to honours and emolument, but for the simple permission to employ a man's capital, or exercise an industrious calling, are judged, to the one needful quality of submissive obedience,—can be easily appreciated. It would be well if this picture had but one side, and if the informing system could be freed from the abuse of raising the malevolent and envious at the expense of unsuspecting and meritorious rivals. But in this our readers will readily believe that Austria forms no exception to the general rule of society; and thus the extent to which it is thought necessary to carry the system, is looked upon as a heavy grievance, and a lamentable source of demoralization.

The accountants' offices are of course numerous, and form a special branch of the civil service, counting 1983 individuals in employment, and 1451 upon the pension list. The salaries and expenses of this branch amounted, in 1836, to 2,581,820 florins.

The office however upon which the late Emperor prided himself, as having brought it to high perfection, is the board of general control—a commission which examines the accounts rendered by every branch of the service, frequently years after they have been sent in, with the view of correcting inaccuracies and of checking peculation. Of the efficacy of the office but little has transpired, and perhaps the utmost it can do is to cause the provincial civilians to be careful as to the shape in which they render their accounts. But one instance of the Emperor's confidence in the control thus exercised is too singular not to be mentioned. In the last year of his reign he caused the board of control to take an inventory of the coins and valuable objects in his choice collection of antiquities; and accordingly copper, silver, bronze and gold medals were enumerated *as such*, and their weight affixed in a

catalogue, which forms assuredly an unique document in the history of the fine arts. The president of this bureau enjoys a salary of 18,000 florins, besides other emoluments. There are, besides, a vice-president with 9000 florins and three councillors, who receive together 15,000 florins. The total cost of this office, in 1837, was 81,166 florins, including 8515 florins for thirteen pensioners.

The War Office at Vienna, under which the commanders of the forces in the provinces exclusively and immediately stand, employs 260 individuals, with salaries amounting to 346,137 florins, besides other emoluments. We have found it necessary to enter into these details respecting the salaries drawn by public officers, in order to give our readers an idea of the nature of their remuneration. Neither our table No. XI. affords this in full, because the salaries of the different officers are not specified in it in detail; nor can it be gathered from the general statement of the revenue and expenditure, because the balance of the Political Fund alone, which the government has to supply, is there alone accounted for, while the large sum drawn from this fund is omitted. Of the actual total of the expenditure and revenue we shall have an opportunity of speaking, and need here only remark, that the absence of local independent funds throws into the hands of the Crown a great deal of business, which in England, and even in France, is managed by the counties or corporations. Thus the expenditure for roads, the embankment of rivers, and other public works of the kind, would for the most part be defrayed out of county-rates or by special trusts, and would not appear in the national budget. In the same manner the endowments of hospitals and other charitable institutions are generally left to the management of the trustees or directors. In Austria these are officers in the pay and service of the state; and a practitioner in an office of the ministry of the interior, or in the law, may be transferred to the management of the hospital funds, and after some years return to his former vocation.

One branch of this fund is applied as supplementary to church endowments, being destined to raise the income of the rural clergy to what will afford a decent subsistence. Four hundred florins (£40) is the lowest annual income which the

government desires a parish priest to enjoy ; and, if petitioned with the necessary attestations, the deficiency in his receipts is made up to this sum. To the branch appropriated to education the largest sum seems to be supplied by the state ; the reason of which is, that the greatest number of estates have been alienated from this branch of the political funds.

But a review of some other branches of the service is necessary to complete our survey of the public offices.

The ruling ministers of Austria, if we may be allowed the term, have no concern with the direction of the bureau above-named. Prince Metternich enjoys the title of Chancellor of the Palace, Court and State, which indicates supremacy in all the branches of the government and the imperial household. The especial branch of the Prince is the ministry for foreign affairs, by means of which he conducts all the relations of the empire with foreign powers. His hotel is the office of this ministry. In conjunction with Count Kollowrat, who occupies himself more with domestic politics, and in a manner forms the opposition of this ministerial duality (the late Count Clam-Martinitz not having been replaced), the Chancellor discusses the main line of policy to be followed at what is called the "conference." Sometimes the heads of the other ministries and influential councillors are consulted on points lying within the sphere of their activity, and the assembly thus formed is named the Council of Conference. This body is totally distinct from the council of state, in which the important business of the ordinary office routine is discussed, and in which laws are proposed for sanction. The Emperor's personal share in the government is aided, as far as his communications with the subordinate offices are concerned, by his privy cabinet. From this the petitions presented to him at his audiences are referred to the offices in whose department they lie, or to special commissions named at his desire, and who report to him upon the subject. The late Emperor was often strict in demanding an account from his officers, where he suspected a case of hardship, but he never arbitrarily interfered with their proceedings. Of late so many petitions were not preferred to him as formerly, in consequence of its being known that this was his rule ; but he liked to be appealed to, as it kept him in some degree informed, both of how

the officers transacted their business, and of the opinion entertained of them by the public. A special commission of lawyers was appointed to report on every new law that is proposed, showing its bearing on the somewhat complicated mass of existing laws and edicts, previous to its being discussed in the higher councils. The members of this commission are, with the exception of one, attached to other offices.

The Chancery of State appears in our list with sixty-five civilians, and the modest charge of 258,210 florins annually. The diplomatic corps costs 1,018,476 florins yearly.

The influence of the nobility in Austria has been a frequent theme of declamation for writers of all countries. This influence is however more territorial,—that is to say, derived from their extensive landed property,—than from any monopoly of the highly paid places. Even the direct relations which, as we have seen, the government has succeeded in contracting with the peasantry, have not diminished this influence; for they are in the spirit of order, and tend consequently to secure property in their present operation, although the principle from which they originated had a contrary tendency. The improvement in the value of landed property since the peace, in spite of all the difficulties with which the land-owners have to contend, is very great, and their influence has risen in consequence.

Two causes, however, tend to prevent a monopoly of the principal offices by a caste of any description. The most obvious is the great labour and responsibility attached to them, and the very considerable acquirements demanded of those who fill them. The languages of the country are five, and some acquaintance with the majority of them is indispensable for every highly placed official personage. This necessity secures too a pretty equal division of appointments among the natives of the different countries, with some preponderance in favour of the Slavonians; it being a much easier task for a Bohemian or a Pole to acquire German and Italian, than for a German or an Italian to learn the Slavonic dialects. The responsibility is, too, very different in a country where everything proceeds publicly, and the central offices of government are carried on upon the sound and vigorous advance of local institutions, which afford the means of expressing public opinion, from the strict account demanded by the sovereign of a despotic

land of his delegates, where timidity and suspicion are fostered by secrecy, and are soured and startled by every murmur of discontent. Another means of preventing an undue influence of a limited number of families, lies in the extension which has of late years been given to the order of the Noblesse. Every "bourgeois" (citizen does not translate the word *Bürger*) in the employment of the state, whether in a civil or military capacity, can apply for the right to put the "von" before his name, and to secure the exemption of his sons from entering the ranks of the army as privates under the conscription, on the expiration of his fortieth year of service. The rank of noblesse is, besides, never refused to those whose fortunes enable them to purchase estates or to live in a certain style. It is given constantly as a reward for important services; and, if to this extension the great number of Poles and Hungarians who claim the rank by prescriptive right be added, it will cause no wonder that the majority of offices should be in the hands of a class which corresponds with the widely diffused rank of the English gentry. In Hungary alone the regulation exists which confines the public offices to the noblesse, but which the tables in our last Number show to be no real limitation. In the principal offices in Vienna, of 774 individuals in office in 1833, there were 203 belonging to the nobility and the noblesse; but of course amongst these the highest posts were included. The case of the presidentship of the treasury will illustrate the position of the two classes with respect to each other. This office was long filled by M. von Eichhoff, an ennobled bourgeois. When Prince Augustus Lobkowitz was removed from the post of governor of Galicia, this presidentship was divided, and the superintendence of the mines and the mint were given to him, M. von Eichhoff retaining the other branches. On the death of these two presidents, the two offices were reunited in the present president M. von Kübeck, who commenced his career with unusual activity and with a remarkable exertion of power. It is in no way derogatory to this gentleman to allude to his origin, which was, in the strictest sense, from the ranks of the humbler citizens, but which was thus no impediment to his advance to one of the highest offices of the state. He has for many years enjoyed the rank of baron.



The servants of the state form, it is true, a kind of caste, but which is rather distinguished by affected than by real distinctions. As their immense number monopolizes almost all the talent and education of what may be called the middle classes, it is natural that the advancement of their children should often bear the appearance of family compacts, and perhaps really often spring from that cause. The care of the late Emperor for his civil servants is manifested by the large pension-list exhibited in our table (No. XI.), and the necessity will be easily comprehended, which, as we before remarked, made him consider implicit obedience as the main standard of merit in candidates for office and for honours.

But if style and titles be liberally bestowed on a class which is naturally important for the security of the throne, the imperial dignity is no less dependent for much of its brilliancy upon that nimbus which, according to the current of conventional notions, ancient descent can alone confer. That the old nobility are fully aware of the advantage which in this respect is on their side, is sufficiently notorious, since it has recently been chronicled in England in a style so diffuse as to leave little to add on the subject. Neither talent nor merit, whether of a serious or a dazzling character, can efface the line of distinction so deeply drawn between those who pride themselves on ancestral honours and those whose personal qualities have achieved distinction. Nor does the court lend any influence to counteract the prevailing feeling. Ribbons, stars and titles are lavishly bestowed, but the chamberlain's key and the right of the *entrée* are jealously reserved to the privileged circle. Nor does the first class of an order of knighthood (although, like that of Maria Theresia, it enjoys the strange retrospective power of ennobling four of a man's progenitors) confer more present dignity upon the wearer than permitting him to stand in the starred and ribboned crowd upon a gala day; the select and envied number who are admitted to the "Kammer" balls being never encroached upon by a *novus homo*, and still less by the ladies of such, who in Austria, like bishops' wives in Queen Elizabeth's time, are literally "put behind the door."

But neither our space nor our inclination admit of our trespassing on the province of the chroniclers before alluded

to. We must confine ourselves to the dry task of stating the cost of the outward display of imperial dignity, which we venture to denominate by the appellation (unwelcome to royalist ears) of the Emperor's civil list. The document No. XII. of our Appendix affords a fresh proof of the order which reigns in the financial accounts of the empire; nor is it probable that the most parsimonious representative of a rich and powerful nation would wish to diminish its amount.

Our table is for 1836, but the items correspond with the disbursements in 1837, and have not varied since 1829. The total charges for the personal expenses of all the members of the imperial family, the state-officers of the household, the guards, and the state-expenses of the vice-regal courts of Milan and Buda, do not much exceed £300,000. In this table, which for moderation cannot easily be surpassed, we find the sum charged for the apanage of the heir-presumptive, the Archduke Francis, amounts to £4500 per annum, while his private property perhaps does not exceed that sum. The allowances to the Archduke Rainer, the Viceroy of Lombardy, and to the Archduke Joseph Palatine of Hungary, do not properly belong to the civil list, any more than the expenses of the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland or of the Governor-General of India do to the civil list of the kings of England. If we deduct these charges, together with those for the theatres, the sum is reduced by £90,000, and affords the example of the most economical court in Europe.

The absence of one name from the list, like the blank left in Cæsar's triumph, is calculated to increase the respect felt, we believe without a single exception, for a man with whose name the military fame of Austria, in its bright as in its gloomy days, is inseparably connected. The Archduke Charles took for his first consort the daughter and heiress of the Archduke Albert of Saxe Teschen, who, during a period in the last century, filled the post of Viceroy of the Netherlands at Brussels. The property which his father-in-law left him,—although, with the prudent management now bestowed upon it, equal to support the dignity of the eldest prince of the imperial family,—would perhaps in the West of Europe not be thought sufficiently large to make its owner refrain from calling upon the nation to contribute to his support. Considering, as we do,

that the whole statement of the court expenses reflects the highest honour upon the imperial family, this touching trait of moderation in a man, to whom the nation gladly owns that it has the deepest obligations, is assuredly the most creditable of all.

The charge of £30,000 for body-guards requires some explanation. The guards, which correspond to the troops in our army thus denominated, and which perform the outdoor service in the palaces, are composed of the two *élite* companies of every regiment of infantry in the service, and of the regiment of cavalry for the time in garrison at Vienna. The *élite* companies are equipped as grenadiers, with bearskin caps, and their dress is in every respect uniform, with the sole exception of the facings. These grenadiers form a splendid body of men, from every country in central Europe between the Po and the Vistula; and it is difficult, if possible, to give the palm of superiority to any particular corps. Detachments are quartered at Milan and Buda, who mount guard upon the palaces in those cities. The number of the grenadiers is in time of peace 20,340 men in twenty battalions. For these the charge in the table is not intended, but for guards which correspond, as far as a comparison is admissible, with the British Gentlemen and Yeomen Pensioners. The German Noble Guard, as it is termed, has but little to do with nobility; it consists of a captain and captain-lieutenant (generals), two lieutenants (colonels) and seventy officers, who have the rank of captain in the army, and whose qualification since the war has been the number of wounds received in the field. The Hungarian noble guard is essentially a body of sixty young Hungarians of noble birth, who do duty alternately or together with the German veterans within the palace on state occasions. After a fixed period of service they enter the line as lieutenants, and their barrack in the capital is a kind of military college, in which however the professors find dangerous rivals in the gaieties of the gayest of capitals. Since the commencement of the present year an Italian noble guard has been founded on this model. There existed formerly a Polish guard, but it was suppressed.

Under these again are the "Trabanten," who mount guard with their carabines in the avenues and on the staircases of

the palace, whose outer issues are guarded by the "palace-guard," with halberds, in addition to the usual military sentinels.

It must not however be inferred that the imperial family lives in gloomy and remote seclusion, because so formidable an array of guards clusters around the palace; on the contrary, the palace at Vienna is almost public property. You pass up and down its staircases and along its corridors unchallenged, and knock at doors when you have anything to seek from the inmates, with far less ceremony than in private houses. All the members of the imperial family walk and drive out without escort, and the salute of the meanest citizen is returned with cordiality and kindness by them. The palace-chapel is a parish church, and particular ceremonies are performed according to custom in the different churches of the city. The splendid galleries of pictures and collections of objects of art and science are open on stated days, without fees to the public, and were until lately the lecture-rooms of those professors of the university who needed them, to the great advantage of the youthful student. We may remark, that the collections of plants in the Emperor's glass-houses at Vienna and Schönbrunn are almost unrivalled for the extent and value of their botanical treasures.

Such and others, into which our limits preclude our entering, are the benefits which a wise and careful use of so limited a sum allows to the public, besides sufficing to support the dignity of the court, which long arrogated the first place in Europe.

But, that we may not be charged with any unseemingly indifference to courtly rule by those who appreciate its full importance, we may mention a few of the details which have accompanied the other information that we here transmit to our readers. In 1837, in addition to the state officers,—lord steward, lord chamberlain, master of the horse, grand huntsman, master of the kitchen, of the plate, white stick, librarian and count of the royal orchestra,—ninety-eight officers of rank were counted in the various households of the minor branches of the imperial family. Fourteen hundred and eighty-five individuals held the honorary rank of chamberlain; 283 individuals were employed in the accountant's department of the

palace and on the private estates; 199 in the gardens, chases and the forest department. The chaplaincy numbered 32 individuals, the theatre and orchestra 137, the medical department 21, the privy-chamber 66, the stables 353, and the servants' department 448 individuals.

The state of the Empress includes an order which she confers on ladies, that of the Starry Cross (*Sternkreutz*). It was borne some time back by 20 ladies of reigning houses, and 820 other ladies. The "Dames du Palais" counted 32 duchesses (*Fürstinnen*), 58 ladies of privy-councillors, 23 widows of privy-councillors, 62 ladies of chamberlains, 18 widows and two maids of honour, in their number: 17 ladies enjoyed the great, and 18 the little *entrée*.

Of the orders of knighthood, the Golden Fleece counted 32 knights, the Maria Theresia order 332, the order of St. Stephen 177, the order of St. Leopold 745, and that of the Iron Crown 209 members.

Two hundred and fifty-one persons held the rank of privy-councillor.

Thus, as many of the orders of knighthood carry a pension with them, the number of individuals depending on the civilist is by no means small; nor is the splendour of the court at all stinted by the excellent economy which pervades it.

Another addition to the charitable branch of the privy purse is formed by a number of convents and secular foundations, in some of which ladies of pure noble descent only, in others young ladies of the middle classes, on the presentation of the Empress, are received and supplied with a small income. Of the former kind there are ten. The Empress is patroness of two of these, and a princess of the imperial family is always superior of the convent of St. Theresia at Prague. Although a relic of the old nunnery system, and the incomes are only drawn while the occupants are unmarried, these foundations have nothing else of a conventual nature. The ladies live in the house or not as they please, and marry at their pleasure. Two hundred ladies of the nobility and middle classes are provided for in these establishments, and in seminaries which have special endowments. In the foundation called "the Savoy" at Vienna, the Empress selects one from three ladies presented by the head of the reigning

princely house of Lichtenstein. These institutions, if they do not altogether deserve the title of foundations for the encouragement of celibacy, are at least a singular modification of the ancient convents. Formerly a lady whose relations did not wish her to marry below her rank was placed in a convent, and the devotion to a religious life excused and justified the inferred reluctance to enter upon domestic duties. In our age of freedom and intolerance of all restraint no secret is made of the prejudices of caste and of the endeavours made to perpetuate them.

In our last Number we alluded to the system of education in Austria, as being the weakest side of the state. Our table No. XVI. will be esteemed a valuable contribution to the history of public instruction in our times. This table shows at once the means which the Austrian government can dispose of for this branch of the state service, and the exact control kept of the accounts in this as well as in the other departments. In the provinces whose government is strictly centralized, this control is carefully and even studiously maintained; for the importance of the mode of training youth is fully appreciated. As far as the adoption of one system in the schools of so extensive a portion of the empire is concerned, the plan of the Jesuits may be said here to be realized, with this difference, that the implicit obedience inculcated at present has for its object the head of the state in place of the head of the church. Another difference consists in the belief, that the world will keep its course even without the aid of extraordinary learning, which in Austria is only esteemed in the exact sciences. As however the government, when thus repressing the ambitious spark in the minds of youth, offer their mode of instruction, if not gratuitously, at the very lowest rate of payment, a positive good is effected by the number of the schools established, and the order with which they are conducted. Nor would there be so much reason to complain, if those who disapproved of the public system of instruction could procure their children at will a better education. The hardship lies in obliging the scholars of all private academies, which are most sparingly licensed, and such youths as study privately at home, if they have any desire to enter into the service of the state, to pass the public examinations held at

stated periods. Of these examinations there can be but one opinion formed by all who have had the means of observing the subjects upon which they turn, and the manner in which they are conducted. There is no exaggeration in stating that any young person who passes them all without censure (and no less is required to free a lad from the obligation of the conscription) cannot possibly have acquired even a moderate share of that description of knowledge which either forms the judgement or sharpens talent. What the result of this system will prove at a future day for the service of the state, or even for the progress of the nation by the improvement of private property, it is not easy to imagine. But when it is considered that the means enumerated in Table XVI. are unreservedly surrendered by the country to the government, and are applied in a systematic manner, in conjunction with the vast civil, military and clerical patronage, to effect an end of which the examinations we have described must be taken as a specimen, it is not easy to conceive a more gloomy prospect afforded to a nation, or a more heartless and wanton abuse of power. These are strong terms, but they are unhappily more than borne out by the fact. On a former occasion we stated that the present organization of the system was the work of a confidential member of the late Emperor's household. The present members of the government are only in so far responsible for it, that they did not object to its consummation, probably on account of the momentary tranquillity which the eradicating of all youthful ebullitions in political life promises to ensure. That ultimately no political stability, nor, for the present, the cause of social virtue, are promoted by a repression of the natural flow of spirits and intellect in the youth of a great nation, is now generally acknowledged. We may therefore look forward to an amelioration of this distressing state of things.

The two most richly endowed universities are those of Vienna and Pesth in Hungary, the latter being one of the wealthiest endowments to the north of the Alps. The amount of the expenditure of this establishment is not contained in the table, no official return being made of any of the Hungarian foundations. In the universities the candidatureship for the professorships is open to all classes; and, nominally, preference is given to those who at a public examination prove

the most worthy. Of late years, however, the disposition to restore the direction of public education to the Catholic clergy has caused the institution of seminaries and Lycea, in which the students live more under the inspection of their teachers than at the universities, and the appointments in which are mostly given to priests. Of the Gymnasia or grammar-schools, a great number are under the direction of the orders of Piarists, Benedictines, Franciscans, Præmonstratenses, Cisterrians and Minorites,—an arrangement however to which public opinion is by no means reconciled.

The financial side of the Austrian system of public education is that which is most favourable to its managers. The universities cost the nation in 1836, per student, thirty-nine florins, to which the very moderate fees must be added which are paid on admission. The number of Bursarships is considerable, and the government has taken into its own hands the management of the foundations by which they are supported.

The expense of 196 grammar and higher schools, frequented by 35,038 scholars, was, in the same year, 915,328 florins, or about 28 florins each. In all these establishments this of course only includes the tuition.

In such establishments as combine board and lodging with instruction, the expense is very different; as, for instance, in the noble academies at Vienna (Theresianum) and Innsprück, the engineers' college at Vienna, the military academy at Wiener Neustadt, the naval college at Venice, and the Protestant and Catholic clerical seminaries. The average of these institutions gives, in those for general education, a much higher amount per scholar, while in the military colleges it exceeds 200 florins, or 20*l.* per head. It must be remarked, that in these establishments a great many extra charges are made. In addition to the higher military academies, every regiment has its regimental school for the sons of the soldiers.

The returns of the state of primary education show very different results in the different provinces. The total number of children frequenting the schools in 1837 is shown to have been 1,562,546 in 16,754 schools. The number of scholars was 61 per cent. on the total number of children of an age to go to school; and since, according to M. Springer, the total



cost of the primary instruction amounted to two and a half millions of florins, the expense per individual was about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  florin.

This sum, however, does not represent the real cost to the nation of the primary instruction ; for the school is one of the chief obligations on the lord of a manor, whether a private individual or a corporation. Besides free lodging and firewood, an allowance of corn is often made to the village-school-master in kind ; and it must be acknowledged that his lot is, even then, often not an enviable one, when compared with that of his neighbours.

The Austrian schools, however, enjoy the benefit of the principle adopted generally throughout Germany, and which tends to promote both their economy and their efficiency. There is a constant promotion, more especially in the grammar and higher primary schools, which induces the teachers to devote themselves unreservedly to their business, and makes them ambitious to distinguish themselves. Their zeal, indeed, often calls for repression under the present system ; and, under any better, could not fail to produce highly laudable results.

The education department derives, in Austria, the greatest advantage from the use of the buildings belonging to the monastic establishments suppressed by the Emperor Joseph. In Vienna a large monastery, and its accompanying church, are devoted to the use of the university. The principal schools of the city are in the former convent of St. Anne. In the former Palace of the Knights of Malta the Brazilian and Egyptian museums are located. In short, the Polytechnic School alone boasts of a recent and expressly erected building. At Prague the University and Academy of Sciences are lodged in the ancient monastery of the Jesuits, which runs down the whole length of a street, and is one of the finest buildings in the empire. The knowledge of this fact, while the corporations to which these buildings formerly belonged are still in existence, and indeed have of late years been patronized in a remarkable manner by the government, is adapted to suggest unfavourable predictions for the future ; and we have already seen that a number of the schools have been entrusted to the entire guidance of religious orders. Amongst

these the Jesuits are now openly reckoned, and have more than one school under their direction. The Order of the Knights of Malta was solemnly restored a few years back in the Austrian states.

There lies an useful warning in this revulsion of things within the space of half a century. We see the insecurity of all that is based on revolutionary changes, whether proceeding from above or from below, when they hurry on a crisis for which the mass of the nation is not ripe. It must however be owned, that to transfer these buildings back to their original destinations, after an alienation of half a century, would be a revolutionary re-action of a far more ominous kind than even their original expropriation.

Two of the finest buildings in Vienna are legacies of the emperors Joseph II. and Francis II. The former founded and endowed a splendid college of medicine, at which a great number of young men received gratuitous instruction, on the condition of their serving for a number of years as surgeons in the army. Since the candidates for scientific instruction have recently become so numerous, and the military service is so well organized that it is sought rather than avoided by them, the gratuitous instruction, with its accompanying obligation, has been discontinued. The fees however in this college, as in the other institutions, are remarkably low. The foundation of Francis II. is the Polytechnic School.

A seemingly natural connection brings the institutions for the relief of the poor immediately after the schools. Amongst the parochial duties undertaken by the government, the superintendence of the poor-houses in the large cities is included, although the details of management are left to the local magistrates, and the cost forms an item in the city budget. Vienna is divided into thirty-two circuits, eight of which are in the town and twenty-four in the suburbs. The "Armen Institut" has a branch and a receiving-house in each circuit, where out-door relief is constantly administered in four rates; 8 kreutzers (3d.), 6 kr., 4 kr. and 2 kr. daily, to the infirm and indigent. The funds are raised by voluntary contributions, for which purpose collections are regularly made. Legacies of considerable amount are frequent, and the deficiency is made up by government. The city has a poor-

fund, the interest of which is applied to the same end, and the total number of applicants relieved in the course of the year is usually between 13,000 and 14,000.

In addition to this out-door relief, there are a number of poor and alms-houses, both in the capital and in the provinces; and the city maintains both alms-houses and a hospital in the country, where the poor patients not only enjoy invigorating air, but are maintained at less expense than in town.

Our Table No. XIII. shows that the number of paupers relieved in 1837 by 6229 parish-boards was 490,070, at a cost of 2,358,942 florins. The number received into, and now living in, the alms-houses in the same year was 27,047, and the cost 1,289,813 florins. In the villages, however, the rule common on the continent, that the parish must maintain its own poor, obtains. The crippled, and those unable to work, are usually received alternately into every cottage; but in a country whose population is not dense or over-indulged, the burden is not a heavy one. On occasions of general distress, which of late years have been frequent, large sums are instantly raised by subscription. In general the inhabitants of the larger towns are very charitable, and in all classes it now forms a serious object of attention to lessen the sufferings of the destitute. Infant-schools are now found numerous spread through the empire, and are remarkably well managed. At Vienna a society of ladies of rank raises and conducts a considerable subscription annually, which is spent in providing work for the industrious poor, or in relief to meritorious but unfortunate persons. A great number of the principal towns have workhouses for voluntary labour, where the inmates receive nourishment and occasionally a gratification out of their earnings.

In 1837 the number of persons returned as employed in voluntary labour in sixteen establishments was 4178; the cost of the establishments was 313,959 florins, and the receipts were 261,279 florins, including 114,056 florins as the value of the work performed.

In ten houses-of-correction, 737 individuals condemned to forced labour cost 123,925 florins; the revenue to defray

which was 148,819 florins, and 47,616 florins of this sum were derived from the labour of the inmates.

Amongst the items of the Political Fund (No. VIII.) one will be observed entitled the Criminal Fund. To this mode of appropriating a portion of the sequestered clerical lands a great improvement in the treatment of criminals is due; and the interior of the principal prisons of Austria, with the exception perhaps of those for political offenders, is now as well managed as in any part of Europe. Persons under confinement for criminal offences are obliged, without exception, to work, and receive a small daily allowance from the produce of their labour. This sum is laid aside for them, and is given them on their leaving the prison, to prevent them, under the pressure of want, from relapsing into their former habits.

In Hungary, where the prisons are managed by each county, great attention has of late years been devoted to the improvement of prison-discipline, which was formerly much neglected; and so judicious has the management been in some instances, that, while the condition of the prisoners is exceedingly improved, the prisons so managed gradually cease to be a charge upon the community. Under the impulse which public spirit has of late received in Hungary, it may be expected that this country will soon take the lead in this respect, as in others, of the rest of the empire. The state has no returns of these disbursements in Hungary, on account of their local nature in that country.

The Lying-in and Foundling Hospitals, although mostly united, furnish separate returns, which will be found in No. XIV. In the former the greatest mortality is observable in 1837 in Vienna, where the cholera prevailed in that year, and unhappily most in the quarter in which the hospital stands. The irregularity of this table may perhaps be accounted for altogether from the same cause. The number of foundlings received in Vienna, Grätz and Prague is in a pretty equal proportion to the population of those cities.

The number of lying-in hospitals and foundling establishments in the provinces of Lombardy and Venice, when compared with the patients and children received, does not bear out the usual supposition, that diminishing the disagreeable

and distressing results of carelessness or lasciviousness has a tendency to increase the evil. The eight houses at Milan and the other large towns of Lombardy, with a total population far exceeding that of Vienna, only have one-sixth of the number of patients returned from the one establishment in Vienna. In Venice the proportion is still less; and both prove that it is better to have morality inherent in the habits and sentiments of the people, than to seek to repress a contrary tendency by diminishing the aid afforded to the unfortunate.

It would complete the cyclus of the general expenses of the civil service, if we were able to give the amount of money expended upon the roads, for which there is a special branch in the budget; the estates appropriated to this purpose having disappeared from the Political Fund (No. VIII.). This fund is, however, charged with a further sum of 3,817,221 florins, which, with 7,532,563 florins, makes a total of 11,349,784 florins (£1,135,000) for the service of the year. This must however not be taken as the total cost of the roads; for a number of local expenses, to which, as we have already remarked, the inhabitants of the districts which they traverse are bound to contribute in labour or materials, and which differ with the usages of every province, must be added. In Tyrol the most is done without pressing on the inhabitants. In Hungary many of the counties will not let themselves be taxed for the purpose of constructing roads, and have so little insight into the means of creating wealth that they actually endeavour to do without them.

We come now to the heaviest item in the budget after the expenses of the public debt—the War Office. The sum charged for the army amounts to fifty millions of florins, or about one-fourth of the total expense for 1837, and absorbs the whole of the direct taxes, with an addition of three millions of florins. This must be however understood as being only the excess-charge over the sum drawn from the special military fund, as a reference to our Table No. XVII. shows. The total expense for the army in 1837 was 87,783,347 florins; yet, great as this drain on the resources of the nation really is, (so much so, that in the estimate submitted to the Emperor

for 1837 Baron Eichhoff earnestly recommends a reduction in this branch above all,) it must be acknowledged that the sum is not large in proportion to that which is effected by its means. It must excite some surprise to find the cost of a standing-army of 500,000 men, including the artillery and marine, defrayed for less than the sum that it costs France to support an army of 350,000 men, and about half the cost of the British peace establishment.

The chief cause of this remarkable economy is to be found in the dislocation of the troops, which are scattered over the country and in the provinces to the north of the Alps, and to a great extent quartered upon the inhabitants. While the government thus avoids the expense of keeping up extensive barracks, especially for cavalry, it at the same time escapes the artificial pressure on markets by the agglomeration of large bodies in towns. The soldier finds his food and forage on the spot, and no unnecessary expense of carriage or storing is incurred. We need not repeat here what we have stated to be the set-off to this saving in a moral point of view, and which may make many of our readers think that the nation would be the gainer if the charge in the budget stood higher. Under the power which the government possesses of quartering troops on the march upon the inhabitants, the addition of transport expenses is avoided to the regular and easily controlled items of the pay and equipments of the men. The remarkable cheapness of provisions in some of the provinces induces the war-office to lay the greater portion of the army in those parts, and occasionally a deduction is made from the allowances of the regiments stationed in them. Galicia had in 1837 no less than 81,000 men, Bohemia 66,000, Moravia and Silesia 43,000. In Hungary and Transylvania 61,000 men were quartered, and this last-named body of troops being maintained by those countries, the expense of supporting so large a body is taken altogether from the accounts. The 57,000 men reported as stationed in the Military Frontier form the *élite* of the male population of that district, which contribute to support themselves, but by the payment of a land-tax, and only draw full pay when called into actual service. We have already seen that the saving on this head is more nominal

than real, and forms no compensation for the exclusion of those fine provinces from a commercial intercourse, by which the nation would be incalculably more benefited.

It would be foreign to our purpose to enter into a detailed description of the organization of the Austrian army. Some remarks on the chief points of interest in a financial respect will not be unwelcome to our readers.

The first peculiarity observed in the Austrian army is a smaller number of field-officers than we are accustomed to. Thus the fifty-eight regiments of infantry, which number 219,676 men on the peace and 352,830 on the war establishment, have but as many colonels in both cases. The number of battalions is in peace 174, in war 259, each of which is commanded by a lieutenant-colonel or major. A company of 218 men has one captain or captain-lieutenant, one first and two second lieutenants. A regiment is composed of three battalions, the two first containing six companies and the third four companies, besides the two grenadier companies, which are always detached. It numbers, when complete, 3562 men; the complement of officers is, five field-officers, sixteen captains, sixteen lieutenants, thirty-two second lieutenants, one regimental adjutant, two battalion adjutants. As the battalions are larger than regiments in the British service, the number of adjutants is of course greater.

In war the addition made by calling out the second "Landwehr" battalion of 842 men is one major, four captains, four lieutenants and eight second lieutenants. One chaplain, one advocate, one paymaster, one surgeon, with three assistant and nine deputy assistant-surgeons, serve for a corps equal in time of war to two and a half British regiments of two battalions or a brigade.

The Grenadier companies are formed into battalions of six or of four companies, with their own complement of field and other officers, and do the duty of guards in the neighbourhood of the Imperial palaces. The Tyrolese Riflemen form but one regiment of four battalions, although numbering 5459 men. The companies are 225 strong. There are besides twelve other rifle battalions of six companies each, commanded by majors or lieutenant-colonels, and mustering together 15,336 men on the peace establishment. Six garrison

battalions, one battalion of Marines on the Danube, and seventeen regiments of Military Colonists, rated at 47,000 men, complete the infantry, which has, since 1830, twice not only exceeded the peace complement of 315,000 men, but even the war-estimate of 489,240. The two occasions alluded to were in 1831 and in 1841. In the former year the force on foot amounted to 546,715 men, with 89,963 horses; the cost in the budget for that year amounted to 111,543,597 florins. Nor is the economy in the number of officers less remarkable in the cavalry. Each of the fourteen Cuirassier and Dragoon regiments is, on the peace establishment, 1027 men strong, and has but one major besides the colonel and lieutenant-colonel, who does major's duty. The number of troops is six, of 165 men and 151 horses each. The Chevaux Legers, Lancers and Hussars muster in peace 1518 men and 1387 horses, and in time of war 2044 men with 1972 horses. These regiments, twenty-three in number, have one major and two captains more than the Cuirassiers and Dragoons. The company is 208 men and 202 horses strong. The cavalry on the peace establishment is 48,842 men, and on the war footing 64,560 men strong.

In the branches of the service which we have named, more attention has been evidently paid to increase the mass of troops than to promote their nobility and moral efficiency, which is the result, under proper care, of a larger proportion of officers. In the Artillery the principle followed has been a different one in some respects, although the leading characteristic features of this army prevail too in this branch of service. A regiment of artillery numbers 3663 men, and divides into four battalions; the first of six, the others of four companies each. The company has 201 men. The total number of the field-artillery in five regiments is 18,315 men; the rocket-corps is 766 strong, the corps of bombardiers 1074, and the garrison-artillery, which does duty in the fortresses, is 4323 men.

The number of regimental officers is not proportionately greater in the artillery than in the other services; but on the staff, besides the master-general, there are one general of artillery, five lieutenant field-marschals, and five major-generals or brigadier-generals on active service. The exceptional



treatment which the artillery meets with is caused by the great importance justly ascribed to this branch of the army in modern tactics. The men are enlisted for life, and their drill is both strict and of a higher kind, as they are encouraged to study by the rule which promotes the officers from the ranks. In this service an accumulation of men beyond the number absolutely required would be cumbersome and disadvantageous in many respects; it becomes therefore necessary to have the men well set up (to use the military term), supple and strong. In most of these respects the Austrian artillerymen are creditably trained. If they are not quite so alert in their movements occasionally as the French or British artillery, the blame must in a great measure fall upon the late Emperor's inflexible attachment to jack-boots, in which, reaching as high as the knee, he expected his men to manage their guns. This absurd piece of primitive equipment has disappeared in the present reign. In consequence of the prospect held out of promotion, the whole corps is raised in the character and qualifications of the men. Amongst them first-rate mathematicians may be found. The rocket corps is excellent.

The numbers that we have given are the normal ones for the effective state of the Army, according to the regulations. Some little deviation is observable in some of the corps in 1837, in which year the numerical efficiency was as follows: infantry 323,937, cavalry 46,044, artillery 26,582, engineers, sappers and miners, etc. 5732, garrison battalions and frontier cordon 7186, military colonists 61,315;—total of the army 470,789 men, exclusive of the waggon-train of 27,443 men. The Navy reckoned 5734 men, including 989 marine artillerymen. The grand total amounts to 503,966, which, at a cost of ninety millions of florins, does not amount to £18 per man per annum, including the *matériel*. The whole number of disposable men was not however called out in that year, 125,679 having had furlough; but the returns for 1831 and 1835 show at what cost the whole levy is made disposable. This being unquestionably the largest army in Europe, the details which we annex respecting it will also be viewed with interest.

We have used our best endeavours to curtail as much as

possible the observations which it was necessary to offer on the details of this financial system, and yet our article has grown to an unusual length. In considering the national debt we shall therefore resume, as shortly as possible, the general bearing of these details upon the credit of the country, as illustrating the position which it appears to us that Austria is entitled to occupy in this respect amongst contemporary nations.

The historical introduction prefixed to our remarks on the budget of 1837 showed the praiseworthy exertions made by the rulers of the empire to raise the national credit by the fairest means; and few of our readers will believe that the government would not have gained immense popularity by giving all along the greatest publicity to their proceedings. Austria has, in fact, suffered a heavy penalty from the secrecy with which it has enveloped its domestic as well as its foreign policy; for while it has studiously followed the leading impulses of the times, and, as is now generally acknowledged, has been unusually successful in detecting them, the influence of Austria was for many years far from having that ascendancy in Europe to which it was entitled. We need only allude to the frequent aggressions of Russia upon Turkey and Persia, and to the destruction of Poland, all of which must have been sources of deep regret to the cabinet of Vienna, but which, isolated as it so long stood, it could not single-handed restrain. That the tenor of the policy pursued on these and on other occasions was prescribed by the difficulties which the minister found or anticipated in the money-market, may be confidently asserted; but will it sound credible to any one, to whom we have now afforded the means of appreciating the revenue and the expenditure of the empire, that the very rumour of war at Vienna not only renders unsaleable all kinds of public stock, but actually makes landed property, and especially houses, almost valueless? Such is, however, the case. Now we assume that there is nothing on the face of the financial system, as it lies before us, to warrant such a want of confidence in the government. Whence then does it proceed? Why does a minister who has the nerve to tread, in a difficult case, so bold and judicious a line of policy as Prince Metternich adopted but in 1841, want the support of the mighty nation whose interests he so evidently under-

stands, and whose mighty march he has shown himself so well able to guide? When the revolutionary party last year, under the guidance of a diplomatic knight-errant in France, was about to throw the torch of discord into Europe, the Vienna cabinet did not for a moment hesitate as to the policy it ought to pursue. There was no room left for petty jealousies, no thought entertained of separate advantages to be obtained by partitions or favourable barriers. The insight of the minister into the state of things which had kept him prepared for a crisis of the kind since 1830, showed him that the result of a war might prove the prostration of the edifice which he had erected with so much care, while an unhesitating display of vigour might yet keep the sword in its scabbard, or at the worst might curtail the extent of its devastations. Prussia was the power threatened; and it cannot be doubted that a Thiers cabinet would have purchased on such an occasion the neutrality of Austria at its own price. But on this side at least there was no wavering, nor did an Austrian cabinet, since the days of Maria Theresia, ever show grander and better-timed decision. The disposable forces, which we see in 1837 amounted to 500,000 men, were placed in a condition to march and their number increased. The *matériel* of war was such as no army of that size could ever yet command. The advanced guard of this formidable force lay, covered by Sardinia and the lake of Constance, within a few days' march of the French frontier, ready to carry back the wave of destruction as soon as it began to roll into the heart of the enemy's country. Yet was one result of the threatened attack which Austria had apparently so little reason to fear, a paralyzation of confidence, which has led, amongst other results, to a disastrous commercial crisis; while the hollow state of public credit was only prevented from displaying itself in the most fearful manner by the tone early adopted by the French Chambers. Why this strange mixture of power and internal distrust? Why should such unusual talents and such mighty means be exerted to effect so simple an end?

The answer is, that the weak side of Austria, which is perhaps even supposed to be weaker than it really is, lies in the general belief that she is likely to prove powerless in a war

of opinion. The war threatened by M. Thiers was, fortunately, undertaken with a blindness and presumption which altogether deprived the French of the advantage which they might otherwise have gained as the professed champions of liberty. But when the lot is cast, who can say what turn the game will take? and every one felt, that if public feeling were once divided in Austria, the empire was lost. Now the tendency to wars of opinion in our age arises from the fact that men desire more than mere material benefits. Even those of a practical turn are convinced that the only effectual control on governments is the free expression of public opinion, and that such a freedom under due restraints inspires, instead of shaking, confidence. With confidence exertion comes, which is the source of all prosperity. Thus a free expression of public opinion, and unrestrained liberty of exertion, are what all nations demand, in opposition to police restraints upon both. The value of these grand springs of wealth is nowhere more appreciated than in Austria,—a country abounding, as we have seen, in resources that demand cultivation. Why then should the bestowing of such justly-prized gifts be left to a foreign or domestic adventurer, and why should Austria be taught that they are only to be purchased by the sacrifice of the national honour, or by the disturbance of civil harmony?

A careful examination of the items constituting the national debt will show that it is the least, in comparison with the resources of the empire, of all the states of Europe. The landed property of the Crown, if raised to its due value by a judicious encouragement of trade, would far more than cover its amount; one tax, as we have seen, pays its interest, and if redeemed would wipe off the sum. But as long as the secrecy in which all the motives and acts of the government are involved is preserved, and as long as the unlimited confidence which the nation has so long placed in the guidance of one minister of pre-eminent talent is demanded unconditionally for all his successors; so long does the glorious fabric of this great state rest upon the narrowest basis, and every political shock sets it tottering and threatens its fall.

Is it going too far to assert, that a system of greater publicity, and a submission to the control of public opinion on

the part of the government, would have removed the greater part of the difficulties under which it has laboured since 1820? The system of loans, commenced in that year, which were to be paid off by annual instalments divided by lottery, showed the desire on the part of the state not to add to its national debt. The Emperor Francis, moreover, showed at all times a tenacious attachment to the old system of a sinking-fund, which is a popular and often an expedient means of supporting public credit. The instalments of the lottery loans have been regularly paid; the first contracted in 1820, of 20,500,000 florins, is entirely extinguished, and the others are in course of reduction. They were, however, replaced by another loan on a similar plan, contracted in 1838. The operation of the sinking-fund has continued without interruption, and the sum already redeemed from the debt is considerable.

Yet, as soon as the movement in France commenced in 1830, financial difficulties accumulated in Austria. The enormous standing-army of 400,000 men was not considered sufficient to meet the threatening posture assumed by France. The effective force was raised in 1831 to 546,785 men, and the *matériel* was completed on the war footing. The same operation became necessary, as we have seen, in 1835, and again in 1841, and in all instances the outlay was increased and rendered more oppressive by a stagnation of credit and of trade. Now, that these vast armaments were no less directed against internal than external foes, is obvious; for in a war against France alone, in which Austria was sure of the active co-operation of England and Prussia, and perhaps of Russia, such vast armaments seem superfluous. Under the circumstances, however,—that is to say, as long as the government persists in refusing all control to public opinion, and, as its necessary consequence, limits freedom of mental and of trading exertion (which are inseparable),—this is the price which it must be content to pay, not for security, but for the mere removal of the appearance of danger.

Between 1830 and 1836 the national debt was increased, in order to meet these armaments, by 205,457,600 florins. The sum redeemed of the old debt in that interval by the sinking-fund and the lotteries was 56,018,000 florins; so that in six years 149,439,600 florins were added to the debt. In 1837

the further sum of 42,956,756 florins was added, and the deficiency at the end of the year equalled 18,714,108 florins, as appears on the face of our table No. I.

But while Austria was making this addition to her debt, the other states of Europe were likewise not idle. While France has involved itself in a far more enormous expenditure and in complicated financial operations, both England and Russia have done the same. The relative financial position of Austria is, therefore, not worse than that of her neighbours; on the contrary, she has the advantage of having done more than the others with a less waste of money. Yet, we see this does not avail her in the money-market, and for the plain reason that a creditor always looks more to the nature of the security than to the extent of the loan; and while Austria can at every moment be shaken to her foundations by a war of opinion, her security is not deemed good.

The Austrian debt, as it stood in 1837 (and in its main features at present stands), is composed of the old debt which we have described as accumulating through the war up to 1816, and of the new debt concluded since that epoch. The latter contains state obligations emitted on various emergencies, bearing interest from 1 to 6 per cent., to the amount of 766,768,832 florins 20½ kr., of which 458 millions are at 5, and 198,617,540 florins at 4 per cent. interest. The sums due on account of the lottery loans, payable by instalment, amounted to 55,620,000 florins. The sum noted as due to the national bank shows the amount of the notes issued in redemption of the reduced currency, which has been described. This sum, which in 1837\* amounted to 137,187,300 florins, is to bear no interest until the whole sum is redeemed, when interest at 4 per cent. will be paid on 60 millions of the capital advanced; it not being supposed that the bank will be called to advance more than that sum in bullion. This advance properly belongs to the old or deferred debt.

The old debt forms the last item in the table. By the edict of 1816 it is by annual lotteries gradually replaced in its full value, although such portions of it as are not drawn can only

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\* According to public prints the government has since paid off 60,000,000 of florins of this sum; out of what fund is not stated.

claim the original interest in the reduced paper currency. It is right in a financial statement to place it at its full value, since the state has guaranteed the drawing of the annual lotteries, which reinstate it in full. But as its present worth in the market is of course much less, since the drawing will at the present rate be completed in 290 years, it would be allowable, were any arrangement made for redeeming it sooner, to reduce it very considerably.

To the sum of 1,253,535,379 florins, stated in our table as being the figure of the Austrian national debt on the 1st January 1838, must be added the sum of 11,885,135 florins, being the amount of the outstanding paper currency not yet exchanged for bank-notes. The real total on that day was accordingly 1,265,420,514 florins, subject to the reduction in the present value of the old debt, as stated above. Of this sum the sinking-fund held 185,072,379 florins.

The operation of the sinking-fund in 1837 was uninterrupted, notwithstanding the addition made to the debt; 1,888,450 florins were paid off in annual quotas of the five lottery loans then in course, and 1,333,693 florins from the sum raised by the sale of the national domains were applied to effect further reductions. The interest drawn by the sinking-fund for the stock in its hands amounted to 10,571,433 florins. From a passage in Baron Eichhoff's report to the Emperor it would seem as if the minister was desirous of changing the mode of conducting the financial operations followed until then, and of doing away with, or reducing considerably, the sinking-fund. He observes, however, that as long as the expenditure exceeds the ways and means so much as to make it necessary to resort to the money-market in order to meet emergencies, such a change cannot be effected. He expected, however, to effect in that year a saving of 30,000 florins on the commissions paid to foreign agents for these negotiations.

We have stated our belief that a debt of one hundred millions of pounds sterling is not an alarming burden for Austria; since, independently of the small sum raised in the shape of revenue annually from the nation, the crown-lands suffice to cover this amount. That the raising of their value would be accompanied by an increase of the annual revenue without

the addition of any perceptible burden to the nation, and the way in which both may be effected, we shall take a future opportunity of showing, when we propose treating of that side of our relations with this powerful empire which is closely connected with this subject.

END OF NUMBER TWENTY-EIGHT.



## PUBLIC DEBT C

No. I.

the year 1837.

in the year 1837.

## EXPENDITURE

EXPENDITURE.	Florins.	Kr.	Florins.	Kr.
	11,464,800			
	46,500			
	2,283,072	5½		
.....	27,817,958	56½		
.....				



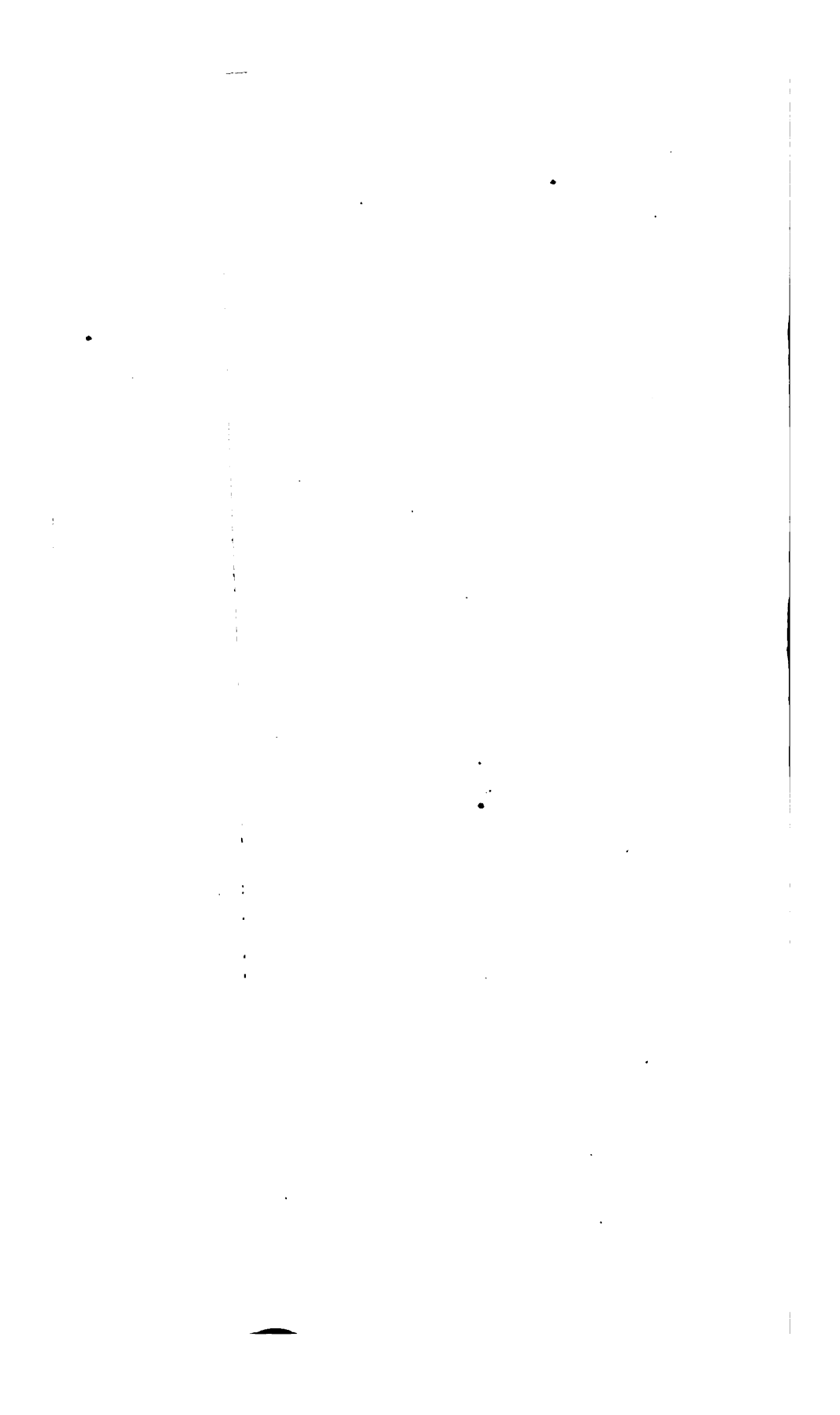
# No. II.

## OF THE IR 1829.

Year metzen. (1 metzen = 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ ).		Land-Tax levied in 1829, (in Florins.)
Barley.	Oat.	
556,643	3,845,479	2,395,346
1,412,636	2,432,438	1,678,150
606,613	2,387,211	1,387,534
561,188	1,535,493	1,138,195
540,246	352,989	386,378
4,147,284	8,223,894	5,355,261
2,326,098	5,776,125	3,487,896
10,528,280	14,696,492	3,161,409
20,678,988	39,240,121	18,990,169

Total.	Bees, Pease, let, &c.	Tobacco	Flax and Hemp.	Butter, Honey, Wax, &c.	Timber, Wood, and Charcoal.	Value of Produce in 1829.		Land-Tax levied in 1829.
						Klafters.	Florins.	
					(pounds).			
1,582,317	13047	1,850	8,844	122,826	911,432	24,676,598	604,787	
1,010,221	9137	.....	138	.....	302,587	7,799,206	396,307	
7,861,096	44158	.....	119,461	695,998	177,136	120,891,255	7,359,761	
6,273,942	27957	3,389	79,336	27,609	107,461	54,648,825	5,320,967	
7,446,124	57072	6,501	63,866	.....	305,100	21,664,547	990,133	
24,173,700	1,51381	11,740	271,645	846,433	1,803,716	229,680,431	14,671,955	

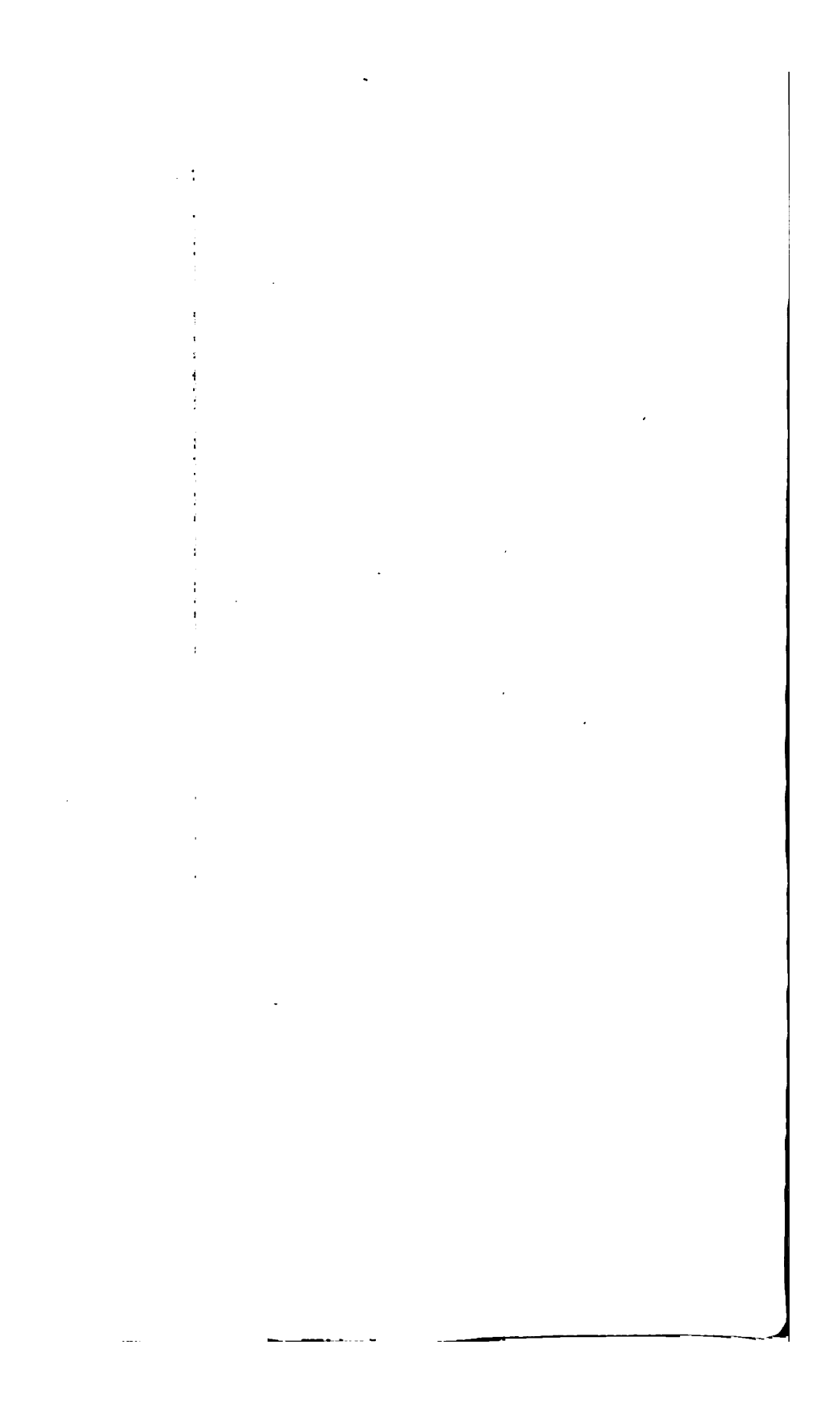
sed in 1829, 33,662



# No. III.

## CH THE LAND-TAX IS RATED FOR 1837.

s (agricultural).						
ls.)	Wine, in eimers.	Hay, in cwt.	Timber and Wood, in klafters.	Total estimated value of Manorial and other Estates (in Florins).	Land-Tax levied in 1837.	
ptal.	1 eimer= 12½ gall.	1 cwt. = 128 lbs.	1 klafter = 224 cubic feet.			
Low00,851	1,966,210	7,694,148	976,311	34,592,836	2,402,672	
Up37,277	216	11,579,240	1,086,820	23,168,799	1,723,649	
Sty32,504	830,488	8,560,840	1,820,234	22,444,393	1,395,538	
Car33,684	238,832	3,774,655	1,132,597	12,421,284	1,122,792	
Illy35,497	952,610	2,145,839	234,039	12,577,098	350,792	
Tyr30,010	723,000	14,568,900	896,000	52,713,713	605,423	
Bo48,417	25,989	8,076,563	2,165,579	50,104,188	5,395,953	
Mo79,659	287,415	4,811,002	1,310,657	24,663,165	3,768,485	
Gal75,028	225	22,738,542	2,423,363	39,724,421	2,848,598	
Da05,388	655,753	1,001,545	301,463	9,364,338	294,408	
	38,315	5,680,738	84,951,274	12,347,063	281,774,235	19,908,310
Low66,362	2,341,282	12,399,051	734,348	138,298,513	7,358,313	
Ves65,559	1,970,979	9,312,802	129,350	59,942,317	5,217,786	
	31,921	4,312,261	21,711,853	863,698	198,240,830	12,576,099
Mil08,693	431,146	6,966,127	1,478,330	25,375,208	1,000,840	
	18,929	10,424,145	113,629,254	14,689,091	505,390,273	33,485,249



*tco Monopoly (continued).*

The out of 17,282 cwt. of leaves and 279 cwt. of half-pre-  
10,703 cwt. of smoking tobacco and 7827 cwt. of

cwt. of leaves were made 8017 cwt. snuff and 1165

336 on an average (with the exception of Lombardy  
(5*d.*), and it sold for 56½ kreutzers (1*s.* 10½*d.*). The  
sequently was 43½ kreutzers (1*s.* 5½*d.*) per lb., or 77½

co cost 14½ kreutzers, and was sold at 26 kreutzers;  
zers (4½*d.*), or 43 per cent.

cost 12½ kreutzers, and sold for 56 kreutzers; profit  
smoking tobacco cost 14½ kreutzers, and was sold at  
er cent.

ts of 19 years shows that (with the exception of the  
ry snuff-taker, on an average, consumes 12 lbs., and  
ly. The proportion of consumers to 1000 of the male  
ws:—

The Lomba Galicia Besu can dra	1836.			1837.		
	Male Adults.	Snuff- takers.	Smokers.	Male Adults.	Snuff- takers.	Smokers.
140 lbs						
eleven ...	368,486	143	334	328,837	138	340
for at ...	247,732	77	306	251,391	73	306
Tho ...	254,938	38	196	264,093	37	196
supplia.	207,511	32	218	207,553	30	221
with r ...	125,393	71	126	125,944	71	139
Carnio ...	220,573	215	220	219,901	230	243
Coast ...	1,016,154	86	249	1,026,744	83	253
Istria, ...	526,655	31	297	527,172	29	297
and pe ...	1,094,356	16	193	1,130,186	16	185
salt us ...	101,880	17	33	103,204	15	32
above ...	760,330	84	44	774,103	84	50
... ..	594,612	112	20	595,909	112	21
ces		72	186		71	189

7 were—

The quantities used were—  
Inland leaves . 241,668 cwt.  
Foreign leaves . 49,053 „

(123 lbs. English).

290,721 cwt.

## Factories.

## MANAGEMENT AND OFFICERS.

5 offices.

9 factories.

3 civil officers.

Hainburg... 8 clerks, guards and workmen.

Fürstenfeld 4 head warehouses.

Trent ..... 8 retail shops.

Schwartz ...

Sedletz.....

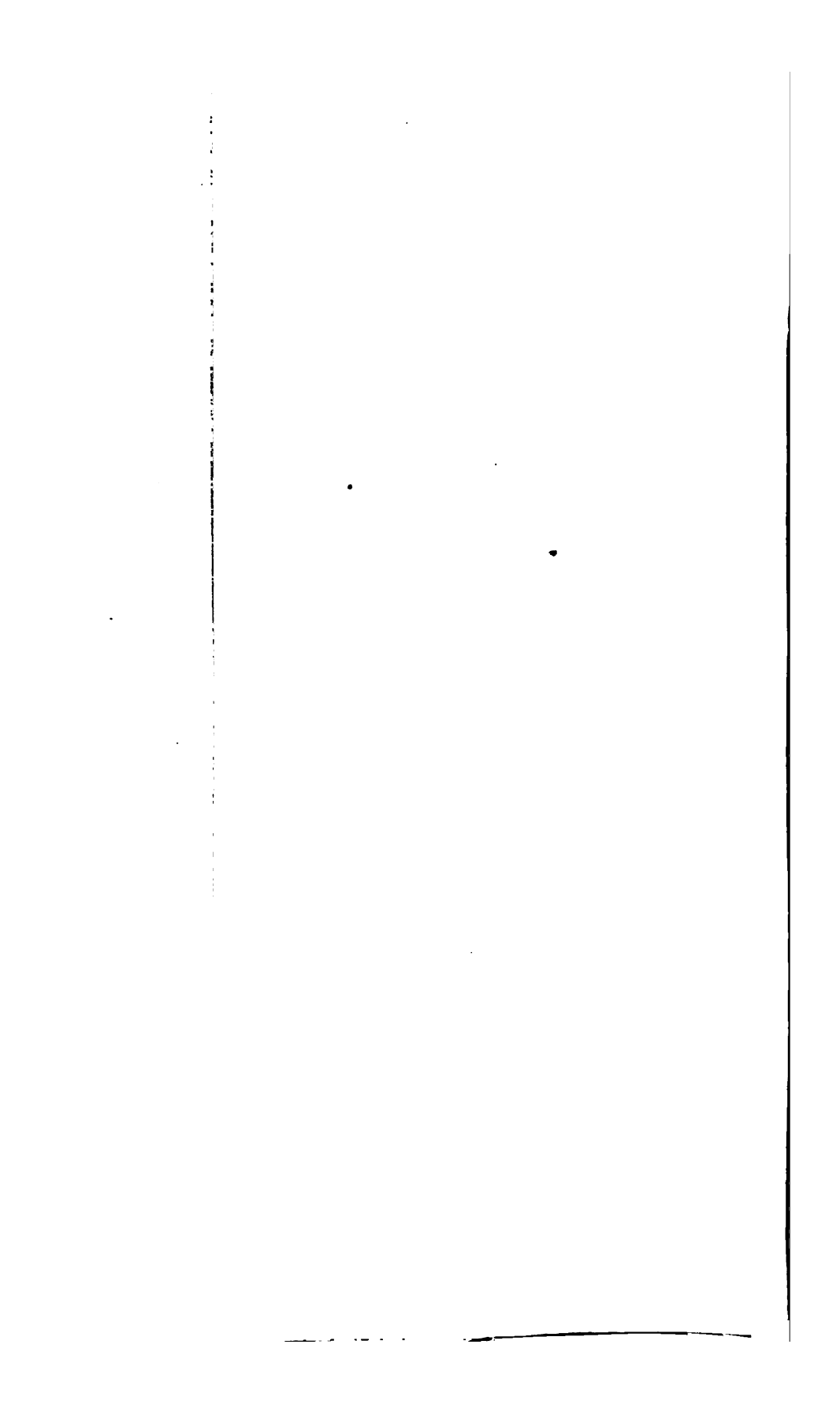
Göding.....

Winicke ...

## ON THE PENSION LIST.

613 with pensions.

1611 with allowances.





*Parcels.*

The	and provin-	
	te persons	520,132
	.....	561,690
		1,081,828, in weight 3,499,645 lbs.
	.....	288,880 " " 1,144,469 "
	and provin-	
	.....	528,770
	.....	648,852
		1,177,622, in weight 3,119,319 lbs.
	.....	301,731 " " 1,497,842 "
	persons	144,952,143 florins.
	ment	81,769,377 "
		226,721,590 "
	persons	145,085,252 "
	ment	80,725,917 "
		225,811,169 "

828 individuals;—1837. 97,439 individuals.

The by the different offices was—

	Parcels.
Dispatched more than	100
" "	500
" "	1,000
" "	5,000
" "	10,000
" "	20,000
" up to	50,000
" more than	50,000

*Stamp Duty.*

	In Italy.	
Private	No. of Stamps	Value
"	sold.	of each.
"	206 at	175 centesimi.
Official	21 —	115 "
"	159,726 —	85 "
Newspap	374,572 —	60 "
"	1,571,445 —	30 "

Letter

The Stamp-office employs—  
9 Offices with 64 civilians, and  
20 diurnal clerks, &c.

The number on the Pension List from this office is 143.

*Saltpetre and Gunpowder.*

and 60 diurnal and other clerks, &c; the  
g 48.

	Gunpowder.	Saltpetre.
Produced . .	20,379 cwt.	13,885 cwt.
The . . . . .	2,669 "	670 "
	22,948 "	14,555 "
ate persons	16,645 "	2,784 "
War-office	3,533 "	24 "
The m	20,178 "	2,808 "
the pens	837 . . . 45,420 "	56,370 "



# No. VI.

in all the Provinces.

province there averaged for every inhabitant—

d.  pount.	Prizes.		Gain to the Crown.	
	Amount.			
	kr.	flor. kr.	flor.	kr.
6	0	30½	0	35½
18½	0	38½	0	40
26	0	16½	0	9½
10½	0	6½	0	4½
33	0	17	0	16
11½	0	5½	0	6
13	0	7	0	6
16	0	8	0	8
4½	0	2½	0	2
2	0	½	0	1½
19½	0	10	0	9½
53½	0	31	0	22½
46½	0	29	0	17½
50½	0	30	0	20½
3½	0	1½	0	1½
5	0	3	0	2
2½	0	1½	0	1
3½	0	2	0	1½
17	0	9½	0	7½

(00,000 sterling.)



1819 TO 1837.

No. VII.

1819 to 1837.	
Sale Price.	
2,004,626	
563,312	
271,209	
522,043	
18,832	
218,777	
913,655	
3,514,410	
8,270	
2,356,441	
3,569,296	
10,239,294	
47,009	
24,247,174	

## IMPERIAL MINTS IN

n.			Total of Gold and Silver.
pieces of Kreutzers.	Groats.	Total.	In conv. fl.
3,480	99,494	591,839	2,911,664
.....	.....	373,977	373,977
.....	.....	973,703	1,635,189
.....	.....	380,772	1,711,291
.....	.....	647,672	1,934,699
.....	.....	296,202	665,229
3,480	99,494	3,264,164	9,232,049
5,318	134,469	928,965	5,228,660
.....	.....	273,209	273,209
.....	.....	872,511	1,588,083
.....	4,275	479,301	1,889,417
.....	.....	1,143,928	1,461,861
.....	.....	211,400	681,347
5,318	138,744	3,909,314	11,122,577
in gold, and 18,357 florins in silver.			
" 6,671 "			
of fine silver at 210 fl., and they			
gold, and 1½ per cent. from silver			
and to that in 1837 of 4,681,914 fl.			



INDS, 1837.

No. VIII.

*Institutions called the*

monied investments.		Debts chargeable.
tal on private ns at 5 cent.	Other receipts.	
	conv. florins.	conv. florins.
86,627	1,964,575	1,071,853
90,463	561,588	331,332
94,063	222,168	176,674
....	1,519,713	1,085,412
....	469,393	120,577
1,184	364,626	136,101
70,058	354,779	219,453
....	19,781	29,950
....	14,152	13,000
42,395	5,490,775	3,184,352
24,471	11,960	158,743
19,139	357,171	458,131
86,005	5,859,906	3,801,226
135,033	2,951,732	897,957
198,548	2,630,169	1,274,036
796,398	898,992	825,247
966,837	342,371	116,904
459,187	422,020	533,885
214,733	1,440,740	343,883
054,620	7,705,543	598,672
840,856	335,496	138,521
484,393	780,293	372,851
110,170	39,392	480
560,575	17,546,748	5,102,436
203,969	2,139,674	14,310,357
306,641	3,556,825	2,269,929
510,610	5,696,499	16,580,286
607,289	3,782,196	996,689
162,279	165,952	59,201
415,830	2,550,062	518,704
185,398	6,498,210	1,574,594
256,583	20,741,457	23,257,316
642,588	35,601,363	27,058,542

1. The first part of the document is a list of names and dates.

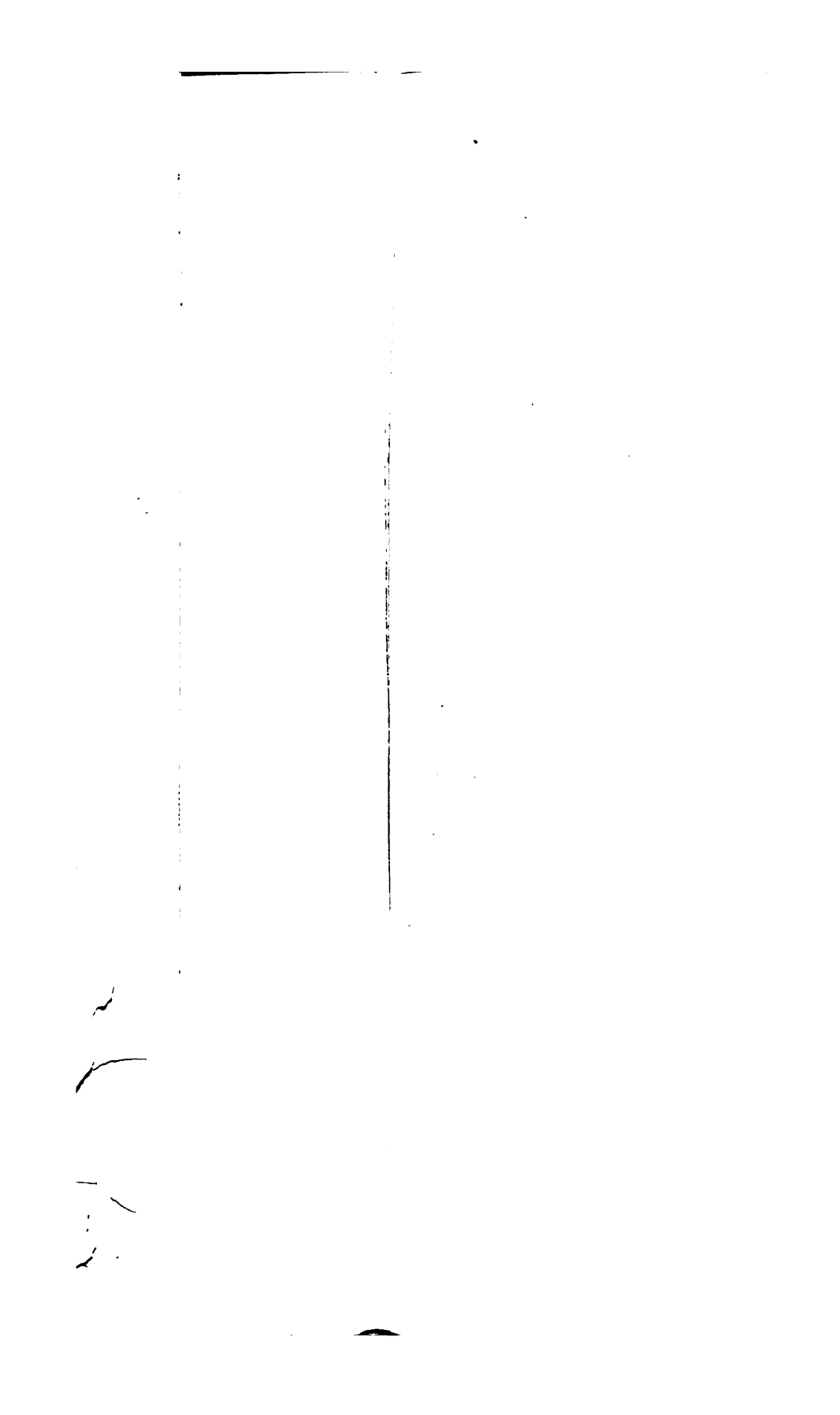


## CHIEF TOWNS

No. IX.

## Towns and of other

Towns and Communes.	Assets and Capital.			Debts.
	lands.	Capital lent at Interest 5 per cent.	Other pro- ductive ca- pital.	
	paper.			
	per cent.			
<b>BOHEMIA.</b>				
.....	7,720	23,463	223,831	154,770
is .....	6,995	27,881	35,507	19,121
en .....	9,604	3,771	48,609	710
.....	8,110	19,883	66,852	504
al Towns .....	1,215	966	61,248	114,973
im .....	3,266	2,519	2,622	7,219
grätz .....	7,055	11,675	46,248	7,815
ns .....	1,249	50,399	132,017	30,387
unzlau .....	.....	14,096	11,889	9,925
u .....	1,256	407	26,905	10,277
u .....	5,480	6,552	39,420	1,213
eritz .....	6,000	16,613	18,846	2,187
.....	7,614	7,992	120,787	11,689
.....	0,441	134	23,388	50,576
.....	3,109	16,858	46,266	3,004
wns .....	9,695	330,623	773,429	102,694
Total .....	8,809	533,832	1,677,864	527,064
<b>MORAVIA.</b>				
.....	6,847	15,937	139,364	9,822
z .....	8,574	73,106	67,605	368
sch .....	6,709	2,446	14,699	994
.....	4,603	4,190	36,289	22,612
.....	9,370	2,940	76,365	10,470
Neustadt .....	8,738	141	18,555	31,803
.....	8,290	5,042	24,148	1,543
Total .....	3,131	103,802	377,025	77,612
<b>GALICIA.</b>				
erg .....	2,687	.....	319,710	44,932
twice .....	.....	10,770	27,793	1,750
nia .....	196	3,423	41,934	30,193
andec .....	.....	.....	25,235	7,650
.....	5,400	1,400	15,367	301
w .....	0,892	1,556	29,953	5,106
ow .....	2,400	10,727	8,106	528
.....	555	10,460	37,304	285
or .....	2,343	53,557	81,281	4,345
ayal .....	4,194	61,089	76,587	570
ew .....	3,505	700	22,500	1,740
w .....	3,040	1,107	11,615	2,671
an .....	1,000	.....	10,689	240
.....	1,927	20,640	29,420	1,624
lau .....	339	21,210	33,332	1,571
nea .....	.....	232	20,073	575
pol .....	1,957	23,634	39,250	1,820
owitz .....	6,479	52,355	78,308	1,248
wns .....	5,075	385,058	950,120	38,210
Total .....	2,989	657,918	1,858,577	145,359



No. X.

E AND

men. The

ners. The

Florins.

2,883,491

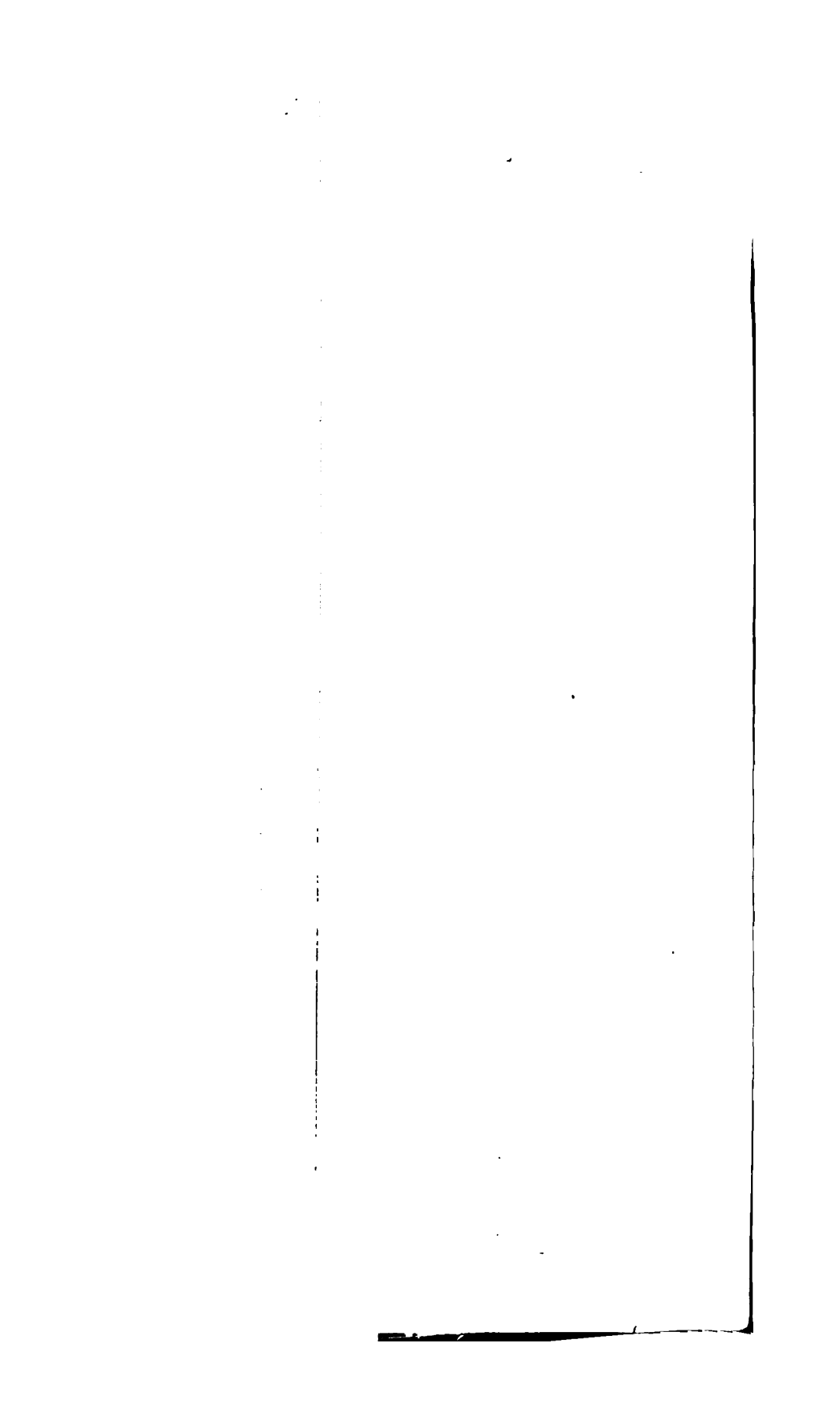
489,868

2,393,623

1,285,253



	720	...	43	17	...	579,205	5	19	...	3	9	4,932	...	...	...
Surveying Department .....															
Home Department for Lombardy and Venice.....	1,049	94	55	1,376	2	969,938	3,213	97	67	127	50	639,504	32	48	17
Police .....	498	111	2	507	1,321	866,673	51	127	31	33	71	58,298	130	99	43
DEPARTMENT OF CONTROL.															
Provincial Book-keeper's office, with the Book-keeper's offices for Hungary and Transylvania.....	1,480	188	191	84	...	1,038,716	126	360	5	24	337	195,945	...	7	...
Building-board for the Provincial Book-keeping Department.....	57	3	6	...	5	43,471	...	8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mining and Saline Department .....	99	...	9	...	...	69,144	...	24	...	1	23	13,857	...	1	...
Tobacco-office/Controller's Department .....	20	1	...	...	...	10,150	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Factory Controller's Department.....	8	...	...	...	...	5,450	...	1	2	...	3	1,457	...	1	...
Total.....	1,664	192	206	89	...	1,166,931	135	386	5	25	363	211,259	...	9	...
Grand Total .....	24,492	4,930	1,680	35,537	53,609	27,540,432	8,383	7,817	690	1,075	6,748	4,710,917	10,987	13,611	7,760
The Emperor's State and Household Offices, Privy Cabinet.....															
The State and Court Chancery.....	753	18	4	1,278	1,324	1,488,445	405	202	74	49	88	180,860	247	336	372
The Diplomatic Corps .....	65	...	...	11	...	258,210	20	21	...	3	19	63,389	...	1	...
The Council of State and Ministries..	242	...	3	13	...	1,018,476	9	13	...	...	14	52,146	...	...	...
The General Accountant's office .....	942	266	10	241	...	2,064,244	87	262	9	40	250	391,347	2	34	2
	1,128	178	57	39	...	1,035,067	80	284	2	13	238	165,775	...	2	...
Grand Total .....	27,622	5,392	1,754	37,119	54,933	33,404,864	8,994	8,599	775	1,180	7,357	5,534,434	11,236	13,984	8,134



## THE EMPEROR'S CIVIL LIST, FOR 1836.

EXPENSES OF THE IMPERIAL FAMILY.			
	Flor.	Kr.	Florins. Kr.
m charged for the Emperor's private use on the Salt-Works of Soovar .....			300,000 0
inture of the Empress-Dowager .....	50,000	0	
terest of the dowry of do., 83,333½ .....	4,166	41	
			54,166 41
re reigning Empress for Pin-money .....	50,000	0	
re Archduchess Sophia do. ....	20,000	0	
			70,000 0
APANAGES AND ALLOWANCES.			
The Archduke Francis Charles (Heir-presumptive)...	45,000	0	
The Archduke John .....	24,000	0	
The Archduke Louis .....	24,000	0	
			93,000 0
The Archduke Joseph, Palatine of Hungary .....	124,733	20	
In lieu of estates .....	4,233	31	
			128,966 51
Total Expenses of the Imperial Family.....			646,133 31
The Emperor's Secret Cabinet .....			23,000 0
Privy expenses of the Emperor .....			40,000 0
Expenses of the State-officers of the Court .....			1,118,199 7½
Expenses in the Bureaux .....			12,680 30
Expenses of the Orders of Knighthood .....			31,066 0
The Imperial Body-Guards.....			308,279 36½
Medals for men of letters, artists, etc. ....			4,458 48
Medicinal department of the Household .....			8,467 45
Court Theatres.....			126,200 0
Cost of Firing .....			51,059 32½
Foundations .....			3,021 15
Allowances, daily appointments, etc. ....			1,977 12
Sundry charges.....			4,352 24
Total			2,378,895 42
EXTRAORDINARY DISBURSEMENTS.			
Travelling expenses .....			100,000 0
Articles of ceremony .....			10,000 0
			2,488,895 42
THE COURT AT MILAN.			
Allowance to the Archduke Rainer .....	450,000	0	
Expenses of the Court .....	236,106	40	
			686,106 40
Total.....			3,175,002 22





No. XIII.

RELIEF ADMINISTERED TO THE POOR, 1837.

*Tabular view of the Relief afforded to the Poor by the Public Institutions.*

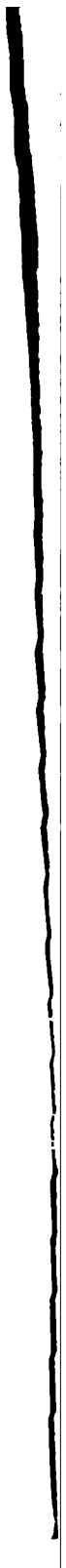
	Parish relief,			Alms-houses.		
	No. of poor-houses.	Individuals relieved.	Sum disbursed.	No. of Alms-houses.	Individuals lodged.	Expense.
			Florins.			Florins.
Lower Austria .....	923	25,690	422,362	141	5,770	275,413
Upper Austria .....	540	17,569	232,240	131	2,476	103,544
Styria .....	371	5,687	41,085	71	955	37,596
Carinthia and Carniola ...	213	6,496	37,312	24	775	34,058
Illyrian Coast.....	6	2,221	40,323	17	577	28,013
Tyrol .....	436	21,773	173,452	37	969	53,658
Bohemia.....	1,120	30,007	255,086	357	4,119	146,997
Moravia and Silesia .....	1,148	18,349	162,760	138	1,209	33,462
Galicia.....	11	3,654	8,580	292	1,978	24,408
Dalmatia.....	28	4,329	16,106	...	.....	.....
Lombardy .....	1,215	285,757	769,501	32	4,096	330,021
Venice.....	192	67,715	182,230	20	3,800	216,597
Transylvania .....	18	641	15,618	6	155	5,278
Military Frontier .....	8	182	2,287	2	168	768
Total for 1837.....	6,229	490,070	2,358,942	1,268	27,047	1,289,813
"    1836.....	...	468,634	2,340,307	...	26,785	1,231,581
"    1835.....	...	468,850	2,279,758	...	26,012	1,190,461



# No. XV.

## E INDUSTRY TAX.

Number of rentices labourers.	Capital Employed.	Industry Tax levied.
V7,062	4,594,700	} 799,766
L0,687	2,519,800	
U7,591	2,905,828	201,073
S0,688	1,978,890	122,257
C0,364	2,217,690	104,029
III,521	552,127	24,163
TY,218	5,411,000	62,422
B0,898	6,837,765	461,742
M7,055	2,912,404	273,267
G7,052	6,757,738	145,500
D7,.....	.....	702
L0,892	75,011,055	216,033
V0,795	39,680,000	161,720
823	151,378,997	2,573,674
TY,.....	.....	.....
M7,975	4,103,326	.....
V7,202	24,150,000	} 830,097
L7,595	2,604,966	
U7,345	2,908,899	208,694
S7,802	1,986,870	123,334
C7,953	5,523,992	104,434
III,106	564,960	25,651
TY,048	5,802,000	66,071
B7,531	6,888,097	466,507
M7,737	3,460,066	281,392
G7,215	7,819,855	147,061
D7,.....	.....	764
L7,898	93,736,203	222,728
V7,105	45,900,000	164,494
547	201,345,928	2,641,227
TY,.....	.....	.....
M7,535	4,883,039	.....

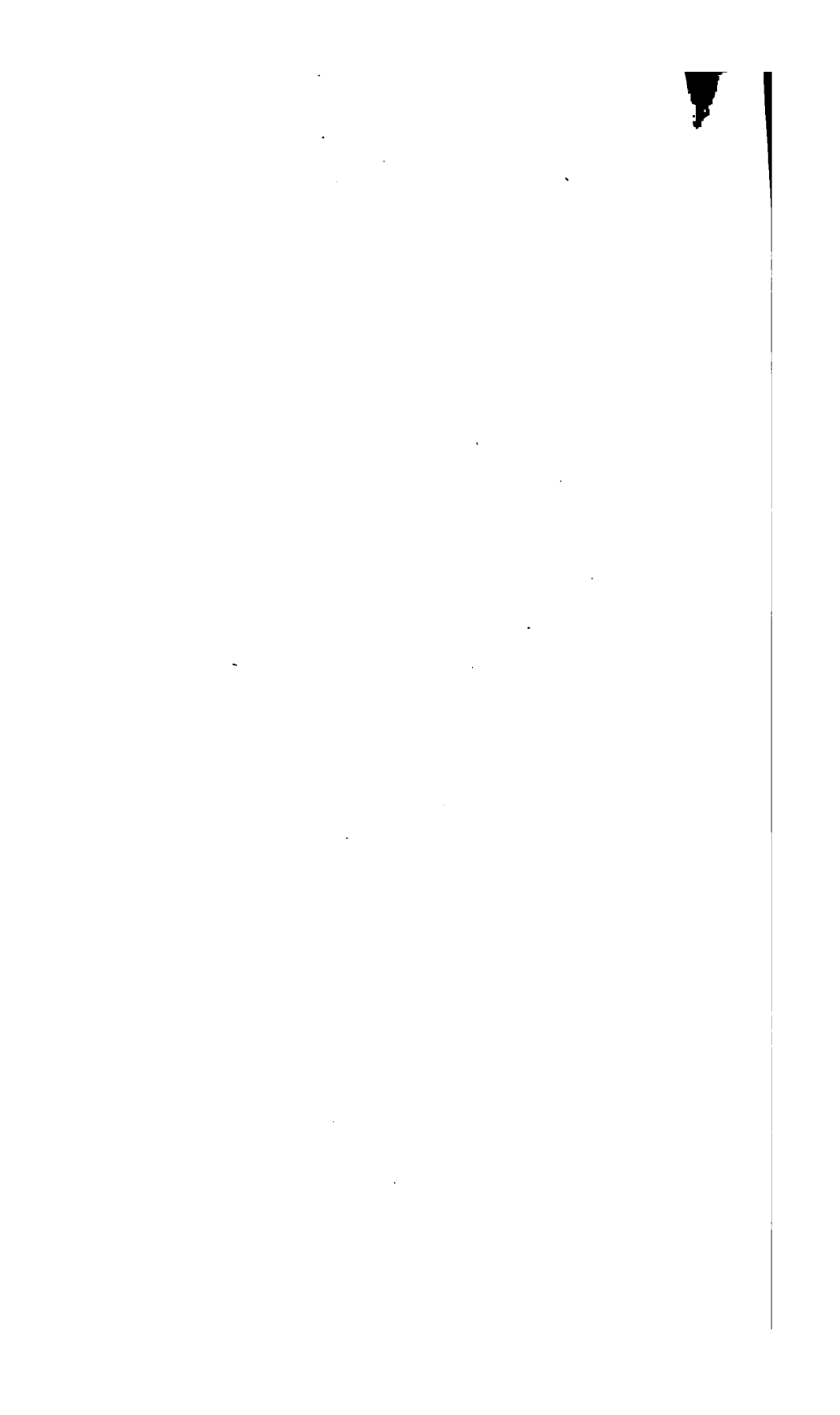


*and the Fine Arts, in 1836.*

rs.		Total.	Pupils.	Expen- diture.	Bursarships.	
Corre- spond- ing.	Con- tribu- ting.				No.	Endow- ment.
607	1,488	3,070	276	59,757	1	3,622
32	60	460	2,798	92,402	40	2,273
1,004	265	5,945	29	21,946	3	1,781
66	2,302	3,222	704	21,440	12	16
1,709	4,115	12,697	3,807	195,545	76	7,692

*arding-Schools.*

t ie se.	Outlay, in florins.	Scholars.			
		Receiving instruction gratis in the house.		Receiving stipends out of the house.	
		No.	Charge.	No.	Charge.
53	1,143,286	2,539	florins. 524,292	41	florins. 5,958
19	634,172	2,317	460,388	335	21,149
...	613,332	2,725	450,036	..	.....
586	625,286	2,549	355,204	10	1,310
126	295,166	1,445	167,652	2,373	77,331
984	3,311,342	11,575	1,957,572	2,759	105,748



# No. XVII.

	1837.		1838.	
Cr.	Florins.	Kr.	Florins.	Kr.
43	8,727,570	33	8,556,524	38
14	283,638	59	316,015	32
44	11,251,658	40	10,968,830	40
11	1,230,151	57	1,200,212	13
37	1,416,603	39	1,576,227	28
22	72,316	54	67,988	12
25	190,275	37	183,132	12
32	1,700,209	33	1,682,360	4
31	531,283	16	508,494	20
5	1,012,608	32	940,772	46
15	182,970	38	175,018	48
30	421,013	24	484,319	7
	.....		.....	
10	3,063,047	46	3,210,123	59
45	7,376,366	33	7,747,146	46
	1,031,153	14	1,032,105	17
0	1,772,646	51	3,128,948	20
7	403,228	14	595,063	38
7	308,201	40	304,187	31
9	371,272	58	310,570	28
5	193,322	23	202,679	31
6	1,477,462	38	1,252,532	25
1	181,478	20	187,616	59
9	4,090,238	36	4,128,073	56
	.....		.....	
	.....		.....	
8	47,288,720	55	48,758,944	50
5	40,494,626	53	41,586,553	34
3	87,783,347	48	90,345,498	24
2	275,657	19	.....	





Metals and Minerals.				Results of the Government Mining Account.	
Cast Iron.	Anti- mony.	Alum. d.	Value of Mi- ning Produce.	Gain.	Loss.
6f. 6kr. per cwt.	9f. 12kr. per cwt.	6f. 37kr. per cwt.	In convention florins.	In conv. florins.	In conv. florins.
.....	...	1,7357	139,195	} 3,262	
.....	...	...	13,037		
.....	...	...	16,891		
.....	...	...	26,356		
821	...	...	95,778	} 446,633	24,870
397	...	...	17,823		
.....	...	...	745,259	} 782156	
13,519	...	...	165,851		
4,294	...	1,8254	1,592,911		
.....	...	...	749,181		
.....	...	...	250,594	} 20,100	
14,111	...	43	1,986,793		
.....	...	71	10,953		
.....	...	...	7,666		
.....	...	...	110,130	} 76,516	
3,446	...	...	133,780		
.....	...	...	1,344	} 291,263	83,263
1,723	...	...	201,739		
22,272	...	...	941,982	} 9,623	
.....	...	...	60,004		
67,958	...	5,2186	2,026,828	} 64,434	
40,195	...	2,2220	808,272		
.....	...	...	33,131	} 3,090	
56,086	...	...	287,995		
.....	...	...	16,809	} 95,317	
5,498	...	...	217,294		
.....	...	...	204,736	} 14,085	
.....	...	...	5,806		
.....	...	...	1,916	} 145,719	
.....	...	...	767,729		
.....	...	...	34,313	} 159,794	
8,689	928	...	519,936		
2,133	1,258	...	833,518	} 5,899	
.....	444	...	364,266		
122	...	...	17,704	} 26,119	
13,979	720	...	1,841,600		
.....	...	...	450,765	} 4,257	
519	...	...	7,409		
.....	...	124	559,363	} 45,058	
.....	...	...	44,279		
6,731	...	...	78,043	} 70,027	
.....	...	...	715,476		
.....	...	...	288,607	} 108,274	
786	...	...	50,376		
55	...	...	1,292,114	} 40,240	
5,456	...	...	165,319		
36*	218,390*	3,350	24,660	18,900,931	
56	161,485	1,978	24,660	12,715,978	
80	56,905	1,372		6,184,953	

mine-owners in Hungary



ber we shall also offer some observations on the constitutions of the 3rd of May, 1791, of 1807 and 1815 ; and without presuming to dictate to the Poles now in exile, we shall not hesitate, as Englishmen—unshaken in the belief that “Poland is not lost,”—to express our unreserved opinion on the course of policy necessary to sustain the moral power of the emigration, and to establish and consolidate an organization of means and resources, by which we hope success may be given to active operations when the time for action arrives.

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#### ARTICLE VIII.

1. *Statistik des Oestreichischen Kaiserstaates.* Von JOH. SPRINGER, Doctor der Rechte, &c.
2. *Unpublished Statistical Documents.*

AN unfortunate increase of interest attaches to the numerical strength and efficiency of the German armies, since France has unhappily become an object of suspicion beyond the Rhine. If no other advantage result from the revolutionary movement which in 1841 threatened the whole of Europe with the convulsion of war, the German population at least have been made to feel the utility of the laws by which the present system of national defence is organized. Under the influence of this feeling, since 1842, large sums have been voted for the completion of the numbers and equipments of the troops in all the states possessing representative assemblies ; and the additional charge which the armaments of 1831 and 1835 cost Austria, lead us naturally to suppose that, on the recent emergency, no inconsiderable outlay was incurred by that empire. The Austrian army, ready to take the field in 1842, we have already described to have been both more numerous and better appointed than any which the history of Europe records as fitted out by any single state.

No one who reflects upon the immense change in society and

in the science of government, which has thus infused vigour into nations that but few decades past were unable to bring an armed force of any importance into the field, without the aid of foreign subsidies, can avoid feeling that a great moral development has taken place in central Europe. The middle and lower classes are those now appealed to when the national cause is to be defended; and the organization of the French republic, which was inherited by the empire, and which drew every man into the ranks, by conferring upon him rights which were worth defending, has been emulated by the monarchical governments of Germany with happy success. It would be foreign to our purpose here to enter minutely into what the lower classes consider to be national benefits. Security of property is the main object which individuals in all nations keep in view. This is insured to the peasant as to the noble in Austria, by an easy and speedy administration of civil justice against internal enemies to peace and order. The military organization has, on the occasion mentioned, proved effective in compressing the lust of rapine and of violence in foreign rivals. Nor is the debt which the other powers of Europe owe to the German governments a slight one; for it was their attitude upon the Rhine which in 1842 secured the endangered peace of the world.

In addition to the general statement of the cost of the army which we gave in our last, our table No. I., in the Appendix to this Number, will throw great light upon the care taken by the government to avail itself of the advantages which the various parts of the empire present for the economical support of men and horses.

There is necessarily a difference in the organization of an armed force adopted by a country in which, owing to an extensive trade, money abounds, from that to which a country must resort in which money is scarce, because trade is limited. In the former case, the value of a man's time and exertions being at a high rate, the government is obliged to seek such subjects as are willing to serve on reasonable terms. It purchases them (if we may use the expression) out and out; and claims then the full right of disposing of them at pleasure, without however venturing to introduce any change in the rate of payment on account of the cheapness of any particular

**garrison.** The better part of the population the government in such cases cannot place under arms, for the simple reason that a selection would be most expensive, while the class resorted to, in all probability, would be in no way more effective than those from which we recruit our regiments in England. In countries where industry both offers a moderate return for a man's time, and the government does not command sufficient resources to be able to make a contract of this expensive kind, it demands a sacrifice from the citizen for the general good, and the remuneration offered is reduced to the lowest scale which will afford a subsistence. The power which a government possesses of arming the population is thus great or small in proportion to the remuneration which industry affords; but it will generally be found that the smaller force at the disposal of the richer government can be brought into a higher state of efficiency than the larger army over which the poorer government has less command.

Russia commands a greater numerical force than Prussia or Austria; but the main body of the Russian army is indisputably in a less efficient condition, and more imperfectly supplied with the *matériel* of war than the German troops. England, in the same manner, during the last war was able to oppose small bodies of troops in a highly efficient state to large armies in less effective condition.

In the military organization of the empire, after the peace, the Austrian government adopted a different course from the Prussian; the different political position of the states forming the empire precluded uniformity, and the crown treated each of the provincial divisions in a different manner. In this way Austria was both able to raise a greater numerical force and to allot a longer time for the drill of such regiments as required it most, than was adopted in Prussia. The male population is, as in Prussia, noted down, but the obligation to serve is by no means general in any province. The noblesse, civil officers of the state, advocates and doctors of laws and of medicine, as well as only sons of families, are exempt. The system of furnishing substitutes is likewise adopted, but the period of enlistment for these, and of service for the conscripts chosen from among the people by the provincial authorities, is fourteen years for the German and Slavonian,

but eight years for the Italian provinces. The main object kept in view is thus to form an efficient force, for which purpose a lengthened period of service is desirable, and the hardships attending such an obligation are lightened, as far as possible, by allowing the various classes to arrange amongst themselves who shall obey the summons to arms with the least inconvenience.

The period of service has thus hitherto been nearly three times as long as that usual in Prussia, for the northern provinces. In the institution of the militia (*Landwehr*) there is also a considerable difference. The Prussian recruit, after serving for three years, passes into the militia regiment of his district. He pursues his peaceful avocations at home under the obligation to attend the drill of his corps during some weeks in the spring, and perhaps in the autumn. The Austrian militia also comprises such soldiers as have served fourteen years, but likewise a number of those on whom the obligation of service in the line did not fall. The *Landwehr* in Prussia really forms the military force of the nation, and the annual levies only prepare recruits to fill its ranks. In Austria the *Landwehr* is supplementary to the standing army, of which each regiment counts two battalions at home, which can be called on emergencies to join it; but which contain either men who have served, but who have passed their prime of life, or such as have had but little military practice. Hungary furnishes between 20,000 and 30,000 men, who form thirteen regiments without "*Landwehr*" battalions.

Besides this peculiarity in the formation of the infantry, the Austrian army has other characteristic distinctions. As in the civil administration of the government, so in the army, the distinguishing national feeling and points of excellence of the different provinces are preserved and turned to account. Thus Tyrol furnishes sharpshooters, and a regiment 4000 men strong is supplied from that province. The Polish districts supply lancers; Hungary sends twelve regiments of hussars; the navy is almost exclusively manned from the inhabitants of the Venetian and Illyrian coasts.

This last-mentioned peculiarity is favoured by the custom, which is general in the Austrian army, of raising the regiments by districts; a plan which, where so great a difference

of language prevails, as exists between Poles, Bohemians, Hungarians, Germans and Italians, is perhaps indispensable; but at the same time favours a certain *esprit de corps*, which is serviceable. The regiments, however, do not lie in the districts where they are raised, which is the case with the Prussian "Landwehr," and which forms the great recommendation of that description of armament. Political difficulties have, since the peace, obliged the Austrian government to change the regiments and place them usually in provinces as distant as possible from their homes. It may, however, be regarded as a sign of the gradual diminution of these difficulties, that a new system, by which the period of service is to be reduced to eight years, is about to be introduced into the Austrian army. That a shorter period would scarcely suffice to keep the men in a state of constant fitness to take the field may be inferred from the peculiar composition of the Austrian army, which has been described, and in which the prevalence of so many different languages as we have enumerated forms by no means the least difficulty that presents itself. The word of command is given in all corps in German, but the utility of the fogleman as interpreter is confessed in Austria, where this addition to the drill system is still retained. When the period of service is shortened, it is probable that the dismissed soldiers will be enrolled in the "Landwehr" for a longer period than is now the case, and this part of the army will then approach in efficiency to the Landwehr of Prussia.

It must strike the impartial observer as an evident fact, that the Austrian government in these military arrangements has kept steadily in view the possibility of the obligation devolving once more upon the empire to preserve the balance of power in central Europe, and that its rulers are determined not to be taken by surprise in such an emergency. In pursuance of this policy, Austria has shunned no outlay to place its disposable force upon a footing equal to the danger with which the peace of Europe has on several occasions since 1815 been threatened. Our table No. I. in the Appendix shows the numerical strength of the army in 1830, when it was still upon the peace establishment. The disposable troops amounted then to 408,575, of whom, however, more than 100,000 were absent on furlough. If this appeared to many

politicians at the time a larger force than times of peace required, the events of that year fully justified the precautions of the Viennese cabinet.

A very interesting point of comparison is offered by Table II., which shows the force on foot in 1831, and at the same time exemplifies the exertions made in Austria to prepare for the chance of hostile movements on the part of France, and for the emergencies which the revolution in Poland threatened to bring about. According to this table, the Austrian army had in 1831 a disposable force of 530,200 men with 81,694 horses. The military reader will be able to trace in the particular augmentations that took place the manner in which the Austrian military system works, and which enabled the government to call out so formidable a body of troops in so short a period. The table shows the state of the army on the 31st October 1831, when the prospect of peace had become more encouraging and a large portion of the army was sent on furlough. Nearly 100,000 men were added to the infantry by completing the battalions of the line and calling out the first battalion of the "Landwehr." The regiments of the colonists in the Military Frontier were augmented by 20,000 men. The cavalry was raised from 54,612 men with 42,015 horses to 70,753 men with 43,613 horses; the train, which includes the teams for the artillery, was augmented from 13,534 men with 3524 horses to 33,808 with 35,575 horses, which indicated a large park of field artillery in readiness. The military budget for 1831, which is given in Table IV., affords some idea of the expense to which Austria was put by this armament. The cost of the army in 1830 amounted but to forty-six millions of florins. In 1831 it was nearly double that sum, the extraordinary outlay having been chiefly caused by the purchase of horses and by the calling out and arming the additional body in the Military Frontier. It is no small proof of good financial management, that the government was able to effect so much without making any addition to the public burthens.

Table III. shows the effective force of the army in 1835, after the alarm of war had passed away and no cause of apprehension remained, excepting the echo that the French revolution of 1830 threatened to awaken in Italy. Austria



could not allow the peace of Italy to be disturbed, and interfered to save two of the worst sovereigns of Europe, the Pope and the Duke of Modena, in the manner in which she had previously intervened to save the reigning family at Naples. The numerical force we see stated at about 500,000 men with 63,728 horses; but of this number 123,475 men were absent on furlough. The effective force continued upon nearly the same footing until the last revolutionary movement on the part of France, under the ministry of M. Thiers, obliged Austria and the Germanic confederation once more seriously to provide for the event of an attack upon the liberties of Europe by the French. We have elsewhere stated, that the force organized by Austria on that occasion probably exceeded any army that modern history records as being brought into the field by any single power. There can be little doubt, that with the cooperation of Prussia and the other German states, the force that would have been opposed to the French upon the Rhine in 1842 would have amply sufficed to roll the tide of war once more back to the gates of Paris. Indeed a consciousness of the formidable nature of a German invasion lies at the bottom of the desire so generally manifested for the fortification of the French capital.

The power described in these tables is correctly stated to be disposable, because, independently of the troops mentioned in them, a considerable force remains to relieve the regular army in garrison and other home duty. Every large city has its national guard. The second battalion of the "Landwehr" makes a formidable muster, and a considerable augmentation of the garrison battalions is easily effected. This formidable military position occupied by Austria, and supported by the political ascendancy which the Vienna cabinet justly exercises over many neighbouring courts, is perhaps at this moment the strongest guarantee for the peace of the civilized world.

Table V. shows the sum drawn for pay and allowances, and the cost of equipment of a private soldier in each corps of the service. The pay is analysed into its component parts, each of which is separately stated,—an arrangement which facilitates an insight into the practice adopted by the war-office of suiting many of the allowances to the market prices, and other peculiarities of the different provinces or garrisons in which

the regiments are cantoned. That there is good reason for paying attention to these local differences, is proved by the very various prices of provisions of all kinds in different parts of the empire, shown in our Table IX. of Number XXVII. Thus in Galicia, where the price of corn is usually but one half or even one-third of the value it bears in neighbouring provinces, and where other provisions are proportionately cheap, a deduction of 9 florins 7 kreutzers annually is made from the pay of grenadiers, and of 6 florins 5 kreutzers from the pay of private soldiers. The soldiers quartered in Hungary upon the peasants receive no allowance for beds, candles or fire, as the Hungarians are bound to provide for the cantoning and lodging of a certain number of men agreed to by the Diet.

In Italy, where provisions are dearest, a considerable addition is made to the allowance for meat. In some garrisons an addition is made for vegetables, and in general, if prices are unusually high, allowances are granted. In the Table VI., showing the sums distributed in this manner in 1835, an addition is made for Galicia on account of some temporary rise of prices. The extra allowance for meat and vegetables in Lombardy amounts to 19 florins 48 kreutzers for a private annually, and in the Venetian states and the Illyrian coast is proportionately high. In Vienna, Lower Austria and Illyria a small allowance is made under this head, but in Tyrol it is of importance, amounting to 11 florins 24 kreutzers yearly. In the table no sum is mentioned for pay to the troops of the Military Frontier. An allowance of 12 florins is however annually made to those who form the frontier guard, in addition to which a deduction from the land-tax paid to the crown is made in favour of the colonists of the Banat while they are on service.

The troops of these military colonies, when they leave their homes, are equipped and paid like the regiments of the line. Tables V. and VI. give only the pay and allowances drawn annually by the men, or the cost of their outfit reduced to an annual calculation. There are however extra allowances of a temporary nature. Such are the rations supplied under the name of "panatica" to the sailors on board ship, an extra allowance of spirits in the least healthy of the gar-

risons of Italy and Hungary, the allowance of powder for reviews, etc.

Table IV. shows in detail the cost of the army for the year 1831, but does not furnish a normal statement of the annual cost of the war department, on account of the additions made in many branches in that year to the usual footing. The entire cost in that year was 76,005,885 florins, including pensions, or nearly £16 : 5s. per man. If we deduct fifteen millions of florins for extraordinary expenses, the annual cost does not exceed £12 per man annually. While these tables, therefore, bear full evidence of a disposition on the part of the crown to lighten, whenever it is practicable, the fearful drain which so large a standing army forms upon the resources of the nation, they point out in forcible language the quarter upon which the responsibility rests for the periodical unprofitable outlays which they record.

In countries whose chief capital consists in land, the abstraction of the labourers to fill the ranks of a standing army is a serious evil; and this loss is the more severely felt, that in such countries the only mode of forming an efficient military force is by substituting number for individual perfection in training. The financial pressure too which forces a large body of unproductive consumers to be scattered through the working classes of a nation is neither favourable to its morality nor to its industry. When therefore the numerous diplomatic congresses that of late years have undertaken the regulation of the affairs of the smaller powers shall have accomplished their task, it may reasonably be hoped that attention will be directed to relieving the greater states of the political world from the periodical loss that they now undergo. It would surely form a subject worthy of inquiry, how Austria, Prussia and Great Britain may be relieved from the necessity of preparing in this expensive manner to meet the ebullitions of political disorder on the west bank of the Rhine, which now form the unstable thermometer by which the yearly budget of the most powerful states has to be measured. But not on this side alone has Austria a task which must demand the gratitude of Europe; in the East a call has arisen in tones that must command a hearing from a Christian court. In the crisis which threatens to overwhelm the fading crescent

of the Turkish sultans in irretrievable ruin, the legitimate successors of the Musselmen have been overlooked by the parties who aspire to divide the inheritance. The Christian rajahs, whom the recent reforms at Constantinople have allowed to breathe freely for a space, have given sufficient tokens of their existence and promising political importance to induce a wary statesman not to leave them entirely out of the calculation. And yet the protection of their interests is left to be openly espoused by Russia alone, whose advocacy is received on all sides with natural distrust. At the present moment the future prospects of the Servians, which have been seriously endangered by the late revolution, are solely studied by Russia, and this power has made the only protest that has been offered to the uncalled-for exclusion of the family of Obrenowicz from the princely dignity, in whose hereditary claim to this charge the Servians had a guarantee for respect to their independence. The blow that has been dealt to this family is avowedly only a link in the chain of political plans which have for their object to reinvigorate the falling power of the Porte, by the readoption of maxims whose main tendency is the enslaving and the destruction of the Christian population. Servia fought her battle single-handed against the Porte at a time when the government was beyond all comparison more powerful than it now is. We are therefore not very uneasy as to the result of the contest, which must arise on the first direct encroachment upon the Servian privileges. But Servia is the key to other provinces, where far greater numbers—millions of Christians—languish in a state far more helpless and hopeless. If Austria adhered to her disinterested line of policy, she would find so much confidence on the part of the Porte in its present isolated position, that her influence must soon be great enough to induce the adoption of a sound course of policy at Constantinople. The more favourable to the rise of the Christians, on the Danube and scattered through the other provinces, this course proved, the greater would be the benefit drawn from it by the Porte, and the more credit would redound to the state which recommended it. In case of need, there can be little doubt that the power which was so well prepared to assert its dignity on the Rhine and in the East would be able to keep order on

the Danube and in the Hellespont. We can no longer shut our eyes to the fact, that the Christian and not the Turkish population must be relied upon by all who would seek to uphold the power of the Sultan. To abandon the rajahs is the way to throw their weight into the opposite scale, in which it must prove destructive to those whom it alone can rescue. Even those who may be disposed to doubt this fact in the rest of the Turkish empire cannot deny its importance in the Danube provinces.

The declaration of a celebrated statesman, that the ultimate aim of all lawgiving was to put twelve honest and able men into a jury-box, echoes indeed the feelings and wishes of the mass of the people in every age and country, but clothes them in a dress peculiarly English. The people in England has grown up from remote antiquity under the influence of the national institutions which secured the interference of laymen in the proceedings of the courts of law, and yet at how late a period were we able to secure the well-working of juries! On the continent generally, the prevalence of the Roman law gradually excluded all those who were not lawyers by profession from a participation in the administration of justice. We have traced the changes by which many of the political institutions in Austria were modified by Maria Theresia, Joseph II. and Francis II.; changes by which the effects produced by the revolution in France were in great part anticipated in the eastern portion of the Germanic continent. The Austrian code of civil law which had been commenced under Joseph II. appeared immediately after the peace in 1815, and in 1817 was fully adopted as the law of all the provinces with the exception of Hungary. This code bears naturally a great resemblance in general principles to the Code Napoleon. In it, as in the French code, may be observed an endeavour to express in concise and lucid language the most approved views of ancient and modern lawyers, and the classification of cases has been praised as being both comprehensive and good. Those who have watched the progress of legal proceedings since the adoption of the Code Napoleon in France will not be surprised that the Austrian law-book, with the benefit of the experience of this celebrated attempt to aid its authors, is far from supplying the place of

a series of decisions emanating from the necessities and sanctioned by the habits and customs of a people. As a foundation, however, on which a useful concentration of public feeling can be attempted, this code is a valuable acquisition for Austria, and the empire enjoys in it an advantage over Prussia. A code of criminal law was promulgated in 1803. A commercial code, intended to bring into a like uniformity with the civil and criminal proceedings the various customs now prevalent in this branch of law in the different provinces, has been drawn up, but is not yet published.

Austria possesses two other law-books, which maintain their place by the side of these modern compilations as memorials of ages long past. The tenure of property being so extensively of a feudal nature, the statutes respecting fiefs still preserve their importance. The laws of mining and for miners, dating originally from Moravia, whence they seem to have spread over Germany, afford a curious testimony of an early social development in the western Slavonic nations, of which there remain other traces that deserve the attention of historians\*. The laws, declaratory and restrictive, or in extension of the codes, which appear from time to time, issued under the imperial sanction, are drawn up by a numerous body, constituting a kind of legislative assembly, the weak point of which is, that it includes only placemen, over whom the crown has unlimited influence. This body, however, and the government in general, have usually been more blamed for the tardiness with which changes have been introduced than for any unnecessary haste or carelessness in adopting innovations; nor is the fairness of spirit which directs the framing of new laws often questioned, even by the most querulous. But the forms of proceeding, which throw the management, even of private affairs, almost entirely into the hands of paid official personages, who thereby exercise an unwarrantable influence, and the extensive powers allowed to the police be-

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\* The attention of the learned world is directed to the history of Bohemia, which the estates of that kingdom have commissioned Professor Palasky of Prague to write. The Austrian government has in this case an opportunity of convincing its Slavonic subjects (who form the majority) of its desire to deal fairly by them, and of showing them that they have a centre of nationality a long way to the westward of the Dwina. Prague, Cracow, Moscow and Kiew, are the four chief pivots on which the history of Slavonic Europe turns.

side the law, as well as the total want of publicity, which screens the actions of men in authority from the wholesome influence of public opinion, are subjects of constant and loud complaint.

The state of social development of the nation, which we have seen exerts so much influence upon the formation of the army, we meet again as affecting the mode in which justice must be administered. In extensive tracts of country thinly peopled, the removal of a tribunal to a distant centre would be equivalent to a denial of justice, while circuit courts, similar to those in England, would spend their whole time in travelling, if the duty devolved on them of going round to the places most convenient to suitors. For this reason, and because the organization of society is adapted to such a means, the leet and manor courts (which in our island have become almost a shadow of a legal institution) retain their position in all the provinces of Austria situated to the northward of the Alps. These courts on the large estates of the nobles and gentry, and similar institutions where the dominion is in the hands of the crown, form stipendiary magistracies for the rural districts, and enjoy a summary jurisdiction to a limited extent. The magistracies of the towns correspond with the "patrimonial courts," as those just described are named, but have a more extended jurisdiction. From these courts an appeal lies to the police and administrative authority of the captain of every circle. A special functionary is appointed in every circle to carry on criminal proceedings. From the circle courts an appeal lies to the nine great courts of appeal for cases of sufficient magnitude, and thence to the court of the minister of justice at Vienna, of which a branch is established at Verona for the Italian provinces. In the Italian provinces the French organization of the tribunals has been preserved. The "præturæ" correspond to the "mairies" and districts of the "juges du paix." Patrimonial courts are unknown to the south of the Alps. The Italian provinces, with 4,716,529 inhabitants, have 150 "præturæ," fifteen tribunals of first instance, and two civil courts of appeal, at Milan and Venice. The patrimonial courts in the northern provinces are far more numerous in proportion, being for—

Provinces.	Population in 1840.	Patrimonial Courts.	Magistracies of Towns.	Number of Inhabitants to one Court.
Lower Austria .....	1,409,626	703	45	1871
Upper Austria .....	857,568	437	38	1805
Styria.....	975,309	837	56	1092
Bohemia .....	4,174,168	868	179	3987
Moravia .....	2,166,638	447	67	4203
Galicia .....	4,797,243	2532	65	1883
Tribunals of first instance.				
Illyrian Coast and Carinthia } and Carniola .....	1,240,780	420	21	

In Tyrol the greater part of the patrimonial courts has been given up, and their functions transferred to the district courts of the crown, of which there are seventy-five, or one to 11,171 of the population. The proportion is in Italy as one to 28,586 inhabitants; but it must be remembered that the relative density of the population of Lombardy and Venice is to that of Tyrol nearly as four to one.

The lords of manors are charged further with administrative powers. The registers kept by every district of the distribution and tenures of land, which not only serve most usefully to keep titles to landed property clear, but also as a control for the government in the levy of the land-tax, are under their charge. Inheritances, sales, transfers and insolvencies go through their hands in the first instance, and the tie between the lord and the peasant becomes one of an interesting kind where the landlord takes any pleasure in cultivating it. This patriarchal connexion is however now attacked on all sides. Philosophical statesmen of the French school look upon it as a relic of the bondage from which the peasant has with so much difficulty been emancipated. Even the government is supposed not to wish for too intimate a union between the powerful lords and their dependent peasantry; at least it often seems to be thought a mode of acquiring favour when an official personage who has the power lends it to thwart any very popular career on the part of a powerful noble. For the poorer landed proprietors these courts, so clogged with formalities and responsibility, are a matter of dislike; and between such and their peasantry there can only arise the bickerings incident to the non-realization of expectations that are liable to be exaggerated, or to the feeling of dependence where no support is demanded. The owner



of a dominical estate can perform the functions of judge in his own manor court if he have passed the regular examinations as a law licentiate; but he in that case comes into a somewhat disagreeable contact with the court of the captain of the circle, to which the next appeal lies, and where he is not likely to meet with scrupulous treatment. The convenience of the landlords and the interests of suitors are therefore both interested in delegating the management of these magisterial functions to deputies, who must be law licentiates and receive the approval of the crown authorities. The payment which these functionaries receive is charged upon the estate, inasmuch as the salary and expenses are not covered by the fees, which, however, are fixed at invariable rates by the crown.

The right of administering primary justice, which in England has become a personal attribute, conferred by the crown, is in these countries inherent in property, according to the old Germanic principle. An improvement in the treatment of the lower classes bringing with it additional burthens for the magistrate, naturally induces everywhere a disposition to employ salaried functionaries, on whose time and exertions the public have then a full claim. In England, where the magistrate's duties are comparatively light, so near a parallel does not lie between the cases as is found in Ireland, where experience showed the necessity of an alteration similar to the Austrian.

In the appeal from these primary courts lies the marked difference between the organization of rural justice with us and in Austria. Instead of a quarterly session of assembled primary magistrates who review in a plenary assembly the acts of the individual members, the appeal in Austria goes to the imperial court of the captain of the circle, which has rather a rival feeling towards than a common interest with the landlords. The magisterial influence of the landed proprietor is here reduced to a shadow as soon as it conflicts with the interests of the crown.

In Hungary the appeal goes from the manor courts to a junta of three patrimonial judges, and from their decision to the county court, which is however composed of the united landed proprietors and high officers of the crown, and bears a greater analogy to the English system. We have elsewhere

assigned as the cause of the greater political influence of the landed proprietors in Hungary, the care which they take to keep the domestic government in their own hands. In the transition which the country is now prepared to meet, by which those ancient institutions, that the nobles have hitherto preserved as a matter of privilege, are to be extended to the other classes and to assume the character of legal rights, it is to be hoped, for the well-being of Europe, that no hasty views of seeming philanthropy will induce the aristocracy to surrender this palladium of the liberties of the country.

But although the German and Slavonic provinces have thus lost one important guarantee of the freedom of the subject, yet the Austrian government deserves praise for the moderate and equable use of the despotic power which is concentrated in the crown and its officers, and which impartial judges will unhesitatingly testify has been generally used to improve the condition of the lower classes, even if somewhat too much at the cost of the higher orders of society. The extent of this power, which has been the subject of such constant and often of slightly founded complaint, is fully exemplified by the tables which we annex.

The police in Austria is not a merely preventive institution as in France, or one subordinate to the regular courts of justice, to whom it surrenders the right of taking cognizance of crimes and misdemeanours. The Austrian police holds, in conjunction with both the above-named powers, the attributes of a court of justice. These attributes are again not separated, as in France, from the other functions by the institution of the courts of correctional police, but are exercised by the same functionaries, and under the same circumstances, with the discretionary power given for the prevention or the discovery of crimes; that is to say, without an observance of certain formalities which are excellently devised in Austria to control the courts of justice and to give some publicity to their proceedings.

In order to constitute a proper criminal court in Austria, the assembly must consist of at least three licentiates at law duly called to the exercise of their profession, and of two non-professional assessors, who have however a voice in the decisions of such a court, and, being indispensable to the validity

of a sentence, may be said to represent a common jury. Wherever the criminal courts do not possess a sufficient number of members to make up this number, they are only charged with the preliminary proceedings and the examination of witnesses. The office of deliberating and finding a verdict is in such cases transferred to the nearest complete court. For this reason 190 district courts in the province of Lower Austria, and the magistracies of the smaller towns, send their documents to a bench of advocates at Vienna, who find the verdict on the cases submitted to them. The smaller dominical courts in Upper Austria must apply to the city court of Linz, those of the Salza circle to the city court of Salzburg. In the other provinces similar arrangements are made to provide for a proper constitution of criminal courts.

Every village has, besides, its local court, which in the smaller ones often coincides with the patrimonial court, but is mostly independent of it, which is composed of the most respected villagers, duly sworn under their headborough.

The influence of the distinction made in the Austrian criminal procedure between crimes and heavy misdemeanours will be evident when we see that the latter class of offences are placed under the cognizance of the police authorities, and are thus abstracted from the jurisdiction of the criminal courts, whose constitution has a considerable leaning towards a popular institution, and possesses the elements of an excellent provision for the liberty of the subject. Our Table, No. XI. shows the classification of the offences which come under the cognizance of the police in this capacity. They comprise offences against the state, such as the organization of unlawful societies, tumultuary assemblies; rioting; offences against property, such as small thefts, frauds, combinations of workmen, etc.; assaults, maiming, careless use of fire or of arms, and other offences against personal security; and the cognizance of various breaches of public morality, such as unlawful gaming, bigamy, adultery, unlawful contraction of marriages, and inveterate drunkenness. The power of taking cognizance of what may be called incipient offences against society, and of trying criminals for such, the punishment awarded against which does not exceed six months' imprisonment, would of itself give great power to the police; but this influence is ex-

tended almost without limit by the irresponsibility of the office and by the power to prolong the investigatory proceedings, during which the accused party can be detained in prison to an indefinite length of time. This last power is felt by the country to be most oppressive, and not even counterbalanced by the best results of the endeavours of the authorities to punish crime.

On the police authorities further devolves the power of licensing particular trades, the granting permission to foreigners to trade or to settle in any part of the empire, and to natives to leave their places of abode or visit other provinces. The number of breaches of the police regulations occasioned by violations of these useless and oppressive restrictions, amounts to a mass of cases equalling the whole list of misdemeanours committed in countries where such methods of maintaining public order are unknown. The lamentable severity with which national jealousy between the provinces during the long reign of the late emperor caused these formidable powers to be exerted by the official persons to whom they were entrusted, has been the cause of much bitterness of feeling that might have been spared, to the great advantage of the government in the public estimation. This rigour explains too how much weight the amnesties granted to political offenders in Hungary and in Italy, on the accession of the present emperor, had with all classes, since they were hailed as tokens of the intention of government to return to the path of confidence and mutual respect between the people and their governors, which cannot fail to produce the happiest results for both.

Tables VII. and VIII. give some details which enable us to judge of the efficiency of a police armed with such extensive powers, in the execution of what may be considered as its legitimate duties, the prevention and detection of crime. In 1837 it appears that the number of crimes whose authors escaped detection exceeded the number of cases in which the criminals were discovered. The list of crimes for which parties were brought to trial was, in that year, 14,631, and the number of cases in which the criminals remained undetected amounted to 14,861. This would appear to lend some force to the saying current in Austria, that the police are, by

the care taken to trace out and punish political offences, made to relax in their pursuit of actual criminals. Some confirmation of this result of a jealous observance of political offenders is found in the circumstance, that by far the greater number of undetected crimes occur in Italy, where, in 88 cases of murder, 345 cases of wounding and 135 cases of arson, with 1036 cases of robbery accompanied by violence, it is noted that the perpetrators were not discovered.

The total number of offenders brought before the criminal tribunals in 1837, in the twelve provinces specified in Table VII., is 15,809 for a population of 20,617,283, being in the proportion of 1 to 1300 of the population. In England and Wales, with a population of 15,000,000, the number of committals for trial was, in the same year, 17,080, being as 1 in 870. But what are called serious police offences and, as such, do not come under the cognizance of the criminal courts in Austria, amounted in the same year to 91,484, of which a large portion would in other countries be classed with the ordinary criminal cases. Such are cases of theft, or larceny and fraud, complicity with thieves and combinations of workmen, which in Austria made up a number of 84,679 cases in 1837. If we add these to the number of criminal cases as classified in Table VII., we have a total of 49,310, or one crime to 405 of the population.

The crimes and misdemeanours committed by persons amenable to the military courts amounted, for a population of 1,589,221 persons, to 11,361 cases, or to 1 case for 139 of the population; a proportion, in considering which, of course due allowance must be made for the severity of military regulations.

The tables which we here publish are, in two important respects, deficient: they contain neither a classification according to the ages nor according to the education of offenders. The latter classification being of high interest at the present moment, we are glad to be able (Table XVI.) to furnish the return of the attendance of children at the public schools in all the provinces for the year 1837, which shows the following results. We take from M. Springer's work the yearly average of crimes for the ten years from 1822 to 1831, as a point of comparison, showing the increase and decrease of crime in

each province. The column of crimes committed includes those whose authors were not detected, as well as those for which agents were held responsible:—

Provinces.	Number of Crimes.		Increase.	Decrease.	Number of Children of an age to go to School.	Number of Children going to School.	Number of popular Schools.	Pro-portion going to School of the whole as 10 to	Number of readers Clerg
	Average of ten years, 1823 to 1831.	Com-mitted in 1837.							
Lower Austria (Vienna) }	3,418	4,059	641	..	158,744	155,794	1,096	9	2,494
Upper Austria..... }					92,768	87,754	626	9	1,557
Styria .....	633	671	38	...	93,824	76,833	642	8	1,436
Carinthia and Carniola ...	188	380	192	...	86,542	28,416	363	3	1,254
Illyrian Coast.....	402	471	69	...	82,324	9,838	113	1	1,160
Tyrol .....	870	909	39	...	107,999	108,171	1,612	10	3,703
Bohemia.....	2,746	3,612	866	...	527,665	493,229	3,437	9	4,230
Moravia and Silesia ...	1,072	1,088	16	...	290,340	271,426	1,886	9	2,413
Galicia .....	3,011	2,809	...	202	518,023	67,958	1,845	1	4,511
Dalmatia.....	2,237	2,053	...	184	17,978	3,624	51	2	1,753
Lombardy .....	9,837	8,890	...	947	337,368	178,207	3,466	5	10,354
Venice.....	5,063	4,550	...	513	248,810	81,296	1,617	3	8,006
Total.....	29,477	29,492	15	...	2,562,385	1,562,546	16,754	5	42,931

If we arrange the provinces according to the proportion which the heavy crimes bear to the population, we shall find no correspondence with the means of education or with the use made of them by the people. The smallest proportionate number of heavy crimes is found in one of the least cultivated but at the same time most thinly peopled provinces, Carinthia and Carniola. Here, where but 3 children in 10 frequent the schools, the number of heavy crimes is but as 1 to 1940 of the population; but amongst 380 cases, 36, or nearly one-tenth, were of murder, 16 of wounding and 8 of arson. A remarkable instance of a similar kind is presented in Galicia, where the number of crimes is but as 1 to 1608 of the population, or less than the proportion of Bohemia. Amongst the list we find here too the heaviest crimes most prevalent. In 2809 cases, there are 138 of murder, 122 of maiming, 94 of arson and 66 of violent robbery. In Upper and Lower Austria, the former of which with the capital has 1 crime to 465 of the population, the latter 1 to 697 inhabitants, we find amidst 4059 crimes but 30 cases of murder and 38 of wounding, with 9 of arson for the former and 12 of murder, 14 of wounding

and 18 of arson for the latter province. The numerical proportion is likewise more favourable for the Illyrian coast and for Styria than for the Archduchies; but again the proportion of deep crimes is more against Styria, where of 671 crimes, 30 were cases of murder, 28 of wounding and 7 of arson, and still more against the Illyrian coast, where of 471 crimes, 42 were murder, 21 wounding and 10 arson. The numerical proportion is most favourable in Moravia and Silesia next to Carinthia; of 1088 cases, which give 1 crime to 1907 inhabitants, we find 47 cases of murder, 41 of wounding and 13 of arson. The proportions in Bohemia are 1 crime to 1108 of the population, and in 3612 cases, 94 of murder, 112 of wounding and 56 of arson. If we leave Dalmatia, as being exceptional, out of the calculation, the heaviest numerical proportion of crime is against Lombardy and Venice, being for Lombardy as 1 crime for 276 of the population, and for Venice as 1 in 457 inhabitants. We have already alluded to the singular excess of undetected criminals in these provinces, which amounts in Lombardy to three times, and for Venice to double the number of the detected. Of 8890 crimes, the agents of only 1803 were brought to trial in Lombardy, and in Venice the perpetrators of but 1504 out of 4550 were arraigned. The population of these two provinces equals that of Bohemia and that of Galicia; but this remarkable extent of crime in Italy is even rendered more deplorable by the fact that the deeper crimes are here even more prevalent than in the northern provinces, where offences against property are rarer. Of murder we find in the Italian provinces 332 cases, of wounding no less than 762 cases and of arson 166. If the annual average given for ten years did not exceed the return for 1837, we should be tempted to suspect that some error had crept into the account, or that peculiar circumstances made this year an exceptional one. It is at least consoling to see the considerable decrease of crime that our table shows, if it be difficult to explain its strange prevalence, which cannot, like the excess of misdemeanours observable too as noted against the Italian provinces in Table XI., be attributed to any harsher exercise of the law on the southern than on the northern side of the Alps. In respect to its poli-

tical position, Lombardy has at no time been more disadvantageously treated than Galicia.

We should be loth to furnish an argument to those who hold that education tends to increase crime when our tables show that Lombardy and Venice in 1837 had half again as many schools as Bohemia, and twice and a half the number reported to be in Galicia, while the resident clergy in the Italian provinces are four times as numerous as in either of the two northern kingdoms. Not only is the influence of schools rather to be estimated by their goodness than by their number, but full allowance must be made for the difference occasioned by increased density of population and the restlessness and activity rendered indispensable to provide under such a pressure for the first wants of life. Lombardy counted 307, Venice 240 inhabitants to a square mile in 1837, while Galicia had but 137 and Bohemia 213 on the same space. The comparison is thus still strongly in favour of Bohemia, not only in respect to the number of crimes committed, but on account of the large majority of the children frequenting school.

Great as is the number of undetected criminals, it seems to be diminishing if we compare it with the average of ten years from 1822 to 1831, during which period but 13,025 criminals were annually brought to trial, although the number of crimes equalled that in 1837, when 15,809 were tried. This difference accounts for the increased number sentenced to imprisonment in 1837, when the condemned, compared with the average of the ten years, were—

1837.	Condemned to Prison.			Death.		Acquitted.	Not proven.	Escaped.	Died in prison.
	Under 10 years.	Above 10 years.	Life.	After trial.	Court-martial.				
Average of 10 years. }	9309	155	0	10	1	730	4504	133	300
	7585	184	10	15	9	1156	3759	100	304

We annex in Table XIII. the return of condemnations and acquittals for the above-named ten years *in extenso* from M. Springer's work, where it will be seen that the Italian provinces are even in this respect more strangely situated than the other provinces, inasmuch as out of 13,911 tried within



that period, no less than 12,958 were dismissed for want of sufficient proof,—a fact, amidst so great a mass of crime as has been stated, of a startling character.

The number of prisoners who die annually before the proceedings instituted against them are closed is a most melancholy feature in this table.

A consideration of these statements will serve to justify the remark that we made elsewhere respecting the various working of the present system of government in Austria according to the degrees of improvement to which the different provinces have attained. In Italy it is obvious that the system does not work well, otherwise a people so industrious and so ingenious in turning the means placed at their disposal for increasing their wealth to the best account, would surely not be backward in devising remedies to ameliorate the moral condition of the country. It is a most salutary step on the part of the government thus to hold up to them the picture of their social state; but it is not for us to judge how far the excuse of the Italians is founded, that if they were left more to themselves and were less hampered by excessive restrictions framed after a foreign model, they would do better.

A marked contrast is presented by the activity of the police regarding offences which come under the cognizance of their own tribunal, when compared with the fearful remissness which seems to prevail in the pursuit of criminals. Table XI. shows the enormous number of 91,484 serious misdemeanours as committed in the year 1837 by a population of 20,617,000, which gives a proportion of 1 in 421 for ten provinces of the empire, and of 1 in 50 for Lombardy and Venice. If we consider that of the offences enumerated in this table two-thirds would with us form the subject of a criminal indictment, it must evidently be proving too much to lay such a burthen upon the shoulders of the Italians as the sum of crimes and misdemeanours amounts to. From this circumstance, which tallies so ill with the flourishing state of the province in other respects, as well as from the number of criminal cases annually dismissed as “non proven,” we are tempted to believe that immense room is open for improvement in the organization and working of the domestic government of these fine provinces.

A most interesting proof, that a people allowed to consult their own interests, if not goaded by tyranny or rendered suspicious by deception, will not be slow to take steps in order to ameliorate the state of the national morals, is at this moment afforded by Hungary. We have no tables to adduce of the state of crime in that country, and they would probably, if drawn up, afford no cheering view of the state of manners or of morals. We have however described the country as being for a wearisome period solely occupied with the task of preserving the national institutions against the attacks of the court at Vienna and of the party devoted to it at home. No sooner had the first acts of the present reign given a seeming guarantee that the national feelings and habits would be respected, than projects of reform without number started up, and the only difficulty which the more experienced members of the Diet had to encounter was in checking the ardour which the higher classes evinced to throw away all the distinctions that so long had separated them from their fellow-citizens, and which in times of difficulty had alone preserved the palladium of freedom for all. The Diet of 1836 organized the administration of primary justice, and feeling itself *able* to confer the boon of freedom as more than a name upon the peasant and the citizen, *it did confer it*. The peasant can now hold lands in his own name, and enter into contracts with his lord, without fearing the intervention of a third party prepared to swallow up the profits of both. The citizen, who formerly only sued in a court of law in the name of his corporation, can now enter a suit in his own name. The nobles have declared their property open to executions for debt under the sanction of laws which they expect to see respected. The coming diet will (if no ill-judged interference occur to mar the intention), in all probability, see them submit to taxation, which has hitherto fallen altogether upon the peasants. Criminal and civil courts will unquestionably soon be organized in Hungary on a footing resembling those of the other provinces, and this will be done the sooner the more ready the crown shows itself to abandon the interference with the private rights of persons and property which it claims in the other parts of the empire. That the Italian provinces would be equally alert in devising means of internal amelio-

ration, which would both increase the dignity of the crown at home and add greatly to its power abroad, if allowed the same chances of which the Hungarians are making such good use, it would be most unfair to doubt.

Were the Austrians themselves, by a modification of some harsh parts of the system, induced to do justice to the means their penal code offers for securing life and property, we do not doubt that other nations would be inclined to study the remarkable classification of misdemeanours adopted, which our table No. XI., perhaps for the first time, prints in a foreign language. Many of the headings there specified for offences will appear strange and perhaps even ludicrous to such as are bigoted to the particular arrangements to which they have been accustomed in their own countries, and beyond which they have had little opportunity of looking; but we would ask, what is there unreasonable in imposing a penalty upon a careless use of fire-arms by which a casual passenger is injured? If a person be killed in that way in England, the coroner's jury usually imposes a summary fine on the offending party. In Austria the police does not wait until a man is killed, but levies a fine where damage is done, and often without it; not in proportion to the injury, but to the degree of neglect or carelessness manifested, and that in a manner which saves the complainant the expense of an action at law. Again, the desertion of poor or sick persons by relations who are able to support them, the presumption of unqualified persons in undertaking the treatment of the sick, as well as the errors of druggists from which so many lamentable accidents have occurred, are fair opportunities for an interference of the constituted authorities. The rubric of persons punished for abuse of official authority is a necessary one in a country where the class of official persons is so numerous, and where the public is so dependent upon the way in which they do their duty.

On this last point it will occur to our readers unquestionably that the powerful engine of public opinion, if allowed to control the acts of persons in office by means of a free press, would prove far more effectual than the severest punishment of those who happen to be detected and prosecuted, in keeping the functionaries of the public service to their duty.

From the small number of transgressions against the censorship and the right to print and to publish, an estimate may be formed of the strictness of the preventive measures adopted to control authors, in confirmation of which it is only necessary to observe, that the very few extra-official papers which are allowed to be published within the empire are prohibited from inserting political news which has not previously appeared in one of the official gazettes. The discussion of all measures of the government, or of the conduct of persons in its employ, is strictly prohibited; and thus a mass of 100,000 civilians and of 50,000 persons holding military charges have no other responsibility than they meet with in the opinions of chiefs often distant from them some hundreds of miles.

How little the Austrian government has reason to fear the working of a free press must be apparent from the tables which we have published, and which, as we remarked on a former occasion, not being prepared for the purpose of publication, represent things rather as they are than as they might be. It would however be difficult for any state in Europe to furnish a picture of the care bestowed by government on every branch of administration that would reflect more credit on the managers than that which these tables display. Surely where the care of the government is so praiseworthy and so efficacious on a large scale, the right of preferring complaint publicly against single abuses of authority, or of pointing out a different side of a projected measure from that contemplated by the ministers of the crown, would do but little mischief, even if it were often used to promulgate fantastical or erroneous notions. At the present day, governments, like individuals, may as well attempt to withdraw from the conflict of opinions in public discussion, as in warlike times from a trial of strength or of courage in the field. It may do well for philosophers to content themselves with the consciousness of the moral courage which they display in declining to take the field when attacked; but the public does not consist of philosophers, and its opinion is not to be altogether disregarded on that account. In the opinion of the public, whoever refuses to accept an open challenge will not escape obloquy, though he prove never so clearly that he has right on his side to the few who take the trouble to seek a special explanation.

The Russian government, which has not been remiss in circumscribing the field of individual exertion in literature, has long since acknowledged the responsibility that falls upon a government which prohibits all discussion of public affairs, at least to give some information respecting its proceedings. Accordingly a monthly bulletin is published by each of the ministers of state at St. Petersburg, containing in a small octavo volume essays on subjects connected with the particular branch of government and periodical statistical tables. Although a critic must be cautious in attaching too much importance to one-sided statements which are not allowed to be questioned by the parties best informed on the subject, yet these communications occasionally bear strong internal evidence of their truth. This review has already drawn the attention of English readers to these official publications \*, and from some recent steps taken by the Russian government, we are pleased to think that these attempts to point out where the interests of two powerful states coincide have not been without their effect. Austria has only within this year published even the returns of the population and of trade in an official shape.

A very striking instance of the extent to which timidity or indifference in publishing is carried by the Austrian government is afforded by Tables XIV. XV. XVI. In M. Springer's work, from which we have extracted some highly interesting notices respecting the administration of justice, not a word is said respecting the state and management of the prisons. This omission is the more remarkable, that it is notorious that the Austrian government has been subjected to more obloquy on the subject of its prisons and the mode of treating prisoners than on any other. We give in these tables the returns for the year 1837 of four descriptions of prisons, which will satisfy our readers that this branch of the public administration enjoys as much care as any other, and that the arrangements in the criminal prisons were many years ago upon a good footing. From these returns, which show a total number of 35,378 prisoners as having been con-

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\* Article I. of our No. XX. contains the official tables illustrating the trade carried on by Russia at every point of its frontier through which the communication with Asia is kept up.

fined in the three kinds of houses destined for civilians in the course of the year, and a remainder of 11,701 prisoners detained in them at the close of 1837, no extraordinary accumulation of prisoners is observable. The greater proportion of these too are found in the houses where labour, as a part of the prison discipline, is voluntary on the part of the inmates. In these, 18,196 inmates were received in the course of 1837. These establishments have a mixed character as workhouses and prisons, and are therefore in part supported by local taxation. The greater part of these mixed establishments we find in the Italian provinces, where they are unquestionably a relic of former times, when charitable foundations were so prevalent in Italy. For Trieste and other provinces where the workhouses are exclusively under the administration of the poor relief authorities, the houses are not reported in the tables. It appears that 112,787 florins, a sum nearly equivalent to the total receipts for manufactured goods in the course of the year (114,056 florins), was paid to the working prisoners, which for 11,000 yearly prisoners would form a bonus of ten florins or twenty shillings for the year. The charge to the state amounted to nearly 1*l.* 18*s.* per man for that number.

In ten prisons for such as are condemned to hard labour during their confinement we find a total number of 2324, entered in 1837, of whom 640 remained at its close. For an average number of 1500 prisoners, the sum earned would give nearly 3*l.* per head, while the cost to the state is given at 5*l.* 12*s.* per head.

In the houses of correction of all the provinces, through which 15,747 individuals passed in 1837, the receipts for manufactured goods appears to exceed by a very trifling sum the amount disbursed for the purchase of materials. The charge to the state for the support of the prisoners and the costs of management amounted to 744,710 florins, or about 7*l.* 10*s.* per head, for an average number of 10,000 prisoners. Only the prisoners who have received sentence are entered in these tables, as the specification given in Table VII. proves. Persons under arrest while their proceedings are pending are not included, as well as political offenders and those confined for short terms by the police.

In addition to the prisons for criminal offenders named in these tables, a gaol at Szegedin in Hungary has been appropriated to the reception of criminals from the Italian provinces, the number of whom in 1837 amounted to 557. This use of the prison formed the subject of a motion made during the last session of the Hungarian diet, which the minister easily met, after the lenity shown to political offenders since the accession of the present emperor.

Table VIII. of the Appendix to our last Number contained a detailed statement of what is called in Austria the Political Fund, amongst other branches of which one is noted as especially reserved for the treatment of criminals. This fund is destined for the support of the prisons in the first instance, and the expenses exceeding it are covered by a charge in the budget, or by sums voted by the provincial estates, and occasionally by a parish rate. In some towns (as for instance in Prague) a charitable society subscribes a sum to be distributed to criminals leaving prison, in order that they may not be induced by the pressure of want to relapse immediately into crime. The earnings of all prisoners sentenced to short terms are only paid on their discharge for the same reason.

With respect to the buildings used as prisons, Austria is neither before nor much behind other large states. Some of the houses of detention are certainly liable to the usual reproaches regarding situation, size, ventilation, etc. which are with so much justice leveled against the majority of prisons. But the subject has attracted serious attention on the continent, and Austria numbers philanthropic citizens, amongst the higher classes, who have contributed their share to the scientific elucidation of the subject. The new prison recently erected at Vienna is one that may be considered a pattern, and if the funds at the disposal of government were less frequently abstracted from their legitimate employment by foreign and domestic disturbances, every province would doubtless, in a short time, be as well provided for.

In no branch of the state-administration will perhaps the change in the person of the monarch, which we have seen has operated in other respects so strongly, be more sensible than in the treatment of that class of prisoners whose sufferings,

whether merited or deserving of pity, have so often been made the theme of romantic recitals. The late emperor had entered young into public life, and had lived through the eventful period of the French revolution, the main current of whose destructive flood was directed against his states. To him the machinations which never failed to precede a French invasion, and which had so often laid the foundation of the success of the revolutionary armies, were no secret. There was scarcely a combination of the kind formed which had not been unravelled by the police and brought to the cognizance of the emperor. Could he be expected to look tamely on, when the success of the prodigious efforts which had been made to establish a system of order, and something like a basis of public morality in Europe, was threatened with overthrow by a set of concealed agitators in France—men who were unable to procure a hearing from their own countrymen without attracting their attention by the spectacle of Europe once more in flames? We have traced elsewhere the manner in which the right of holding land was, before the outbreak of the French revolution in Austria, conceded to the unprivileged classes under circumstances of a kind too startling to be denominated *liberal*, without a serious qualification of the term. The opening of the road to the highest honours through the public service, whether civil or military, we have also alluded to. It must be added, that any remarkable service rendered to society, either in a scientific or even a commercial capacity, (such as the establishing of a new or extensive branch of manufactures, or a large public endowment,) entitles the party so meriting to claim the distinction of nobility. The inflexible efforts of the Austrian government to preserve the public credit under circumstances of unparalleled difficulty we have also noticed, and they contrast at the present moment with the attempts made elsewhere to break faith with creditors, in a light too advantageous to need our praise. The very existence of the tables which we have here been instrumental in publishing, testifies to an unremitting attention to the wants of the subject on the part of government, which in itself is highly praiseworthy; so that as far as the mass of nations constituting the Austrian empire are concerned, we have no



doubt that our readers will find more room for a fraternal feeling, and in the system of the government much more that is praiseworthy than is commonly presumed.

We also indulge in the hope that the future will present in its details a more pleasing picture than is unfolded by the history of the past. If we are not much mistaken, the notion of basing improvements in the system of government upon the destruction of existing institutions has of late years passed from the minds of men in the greater part of the continent, and the attention of all is directed towards the improvement of the domestic arrangements and the cultivating of the industrial resources of every state. The motive therefore for a jealous and secret policy is taken away, and we may expect no intruder with the aim of overthrowing the established government to be elevated into the character of a powerful emissary, whose confidence is sought by ministers and monarchs, or whose silence is deemed worthy of torments that may gain for him the triumph of martyrdom. The youth of no living monarch has been familiarized with tales and scenes of horror and of blood, and a milder spirit may be expected to deal mercy as well as justice from the throne.

Under such beneficent influence we may look to see an acknowledgement from the throne of the identity of the interests of all classes, and that the infusion of new energies into any rank below confers power and dignity on the crown, which represents and shares in the glory as in the disgrace of a land, and whose brightest jewel is the happiness of its subjects.



# O. I. THE AUSTRIAN ARMY, Oct. 31, 1830.

Branches of Service.	Generals.	Field	Sub-altern	Non-commissioned	Men.	Horses found by Government.
		Officers.				
Generals in active service .....	210	...	...	...	.....	...
Staff of the Quartermaster-general .....	...	20	41	...	.....	...
Engineers .....	35	35	128	...	164	167
Miners .....	...	2	26	137	855	...
Sappers .....	...	1	29	128	811	...
Pioneers .....	...	1	25	112	974	...
Pontoniers and Boat department .....	...	1	36	69	875	...
58 regiments of the line .....	244	4,208	9,425	206,344	...	...
35 "Landwehr" battalions .....	...	...	...	...	...	...
12 corps of reserve in Hungary .....	...	...	...	...	...	...
1 regiment of Tyrolese Rifles .....	...	5	96	254	3 870	...
12 battalions of Rifles .....	...	13	298	750	17,221	...
8 Cuirassier regiments.....	...	29	296	776	9,135	7,116
6 Dragoon do. ....	...	19	221	576	6,885	5,418
7 Light-horse do. ....	...	29	346	897	12,555	9,422
11 Hussar do. ....	...	45	542	1,413	17,769	14,668
4 Lancer do. ....	...	19	200	498	7,368	5,391
1 regiment Italian gendarmes .....	...	4	50	124	992	393
5 regiments of field artillery .....	...	27	457	1,141	17,948	...
1 corps of bombardiers .....	...	5	28	351	1,056	...
1 corps of fireworkers (rocket corps) .....	...	2	14	54	525	...
1 corps of ordnance staff.....	...	...	38	52	91	...
14 districts of garrison artillery .....	...	23	246	563	2,145	42,575
8 frontier cordons .....	...	6	112	327	4,156	5
6 garrison battalions .....	...	6	127	244	4,529	...
1 corps of guards of the Hungarian crown .....	...	...	2	4	63	...
9 houses of reception for convoys, &c. ....	...	2	7	...	49	...
14 prisons of the staff .....	...	...	...	...	14	...
Military Frontier:—						
17 regiments of infantry .....	}	76	863	1,808	42,072	...
1 regiment Szekler Hussars .....					1,293	54
1 battal. gunboatmen (Czakaists) }					1,260	...
Artillery and waggon train .....	...	6	88	426	13,534	3,524
Total of the army.....	246	620	8,524	20,109	374,655	46,158
Navy:—						
General staff .....	3	14	120	41	375	...
Marine artillery .....	...	1	6	44	611	...
Battalion of marines .....	...	2	18	99	1 329	...
Sailors.....	...	...	...	178	1,980	...
Total of the Navy.....	3	17	144	362	4,295	...

## The Army and Navy of the Empire counted in 1830—

Generals.....	249
Field Officers.....	637
Subalterns .....	8,668
Non-commissioned Officers .....	20,471
Privates .....	378,950

Total..... 408,975



## No. II.

There were employed on Foreign Service.						Effective disposable Field Force, 1831.	
<sup>2b</sup> Civilians.	Trades- men, &c.	Non- Com- missioned Officers.	Men.	Total.	Horses.	Men.	Horses.



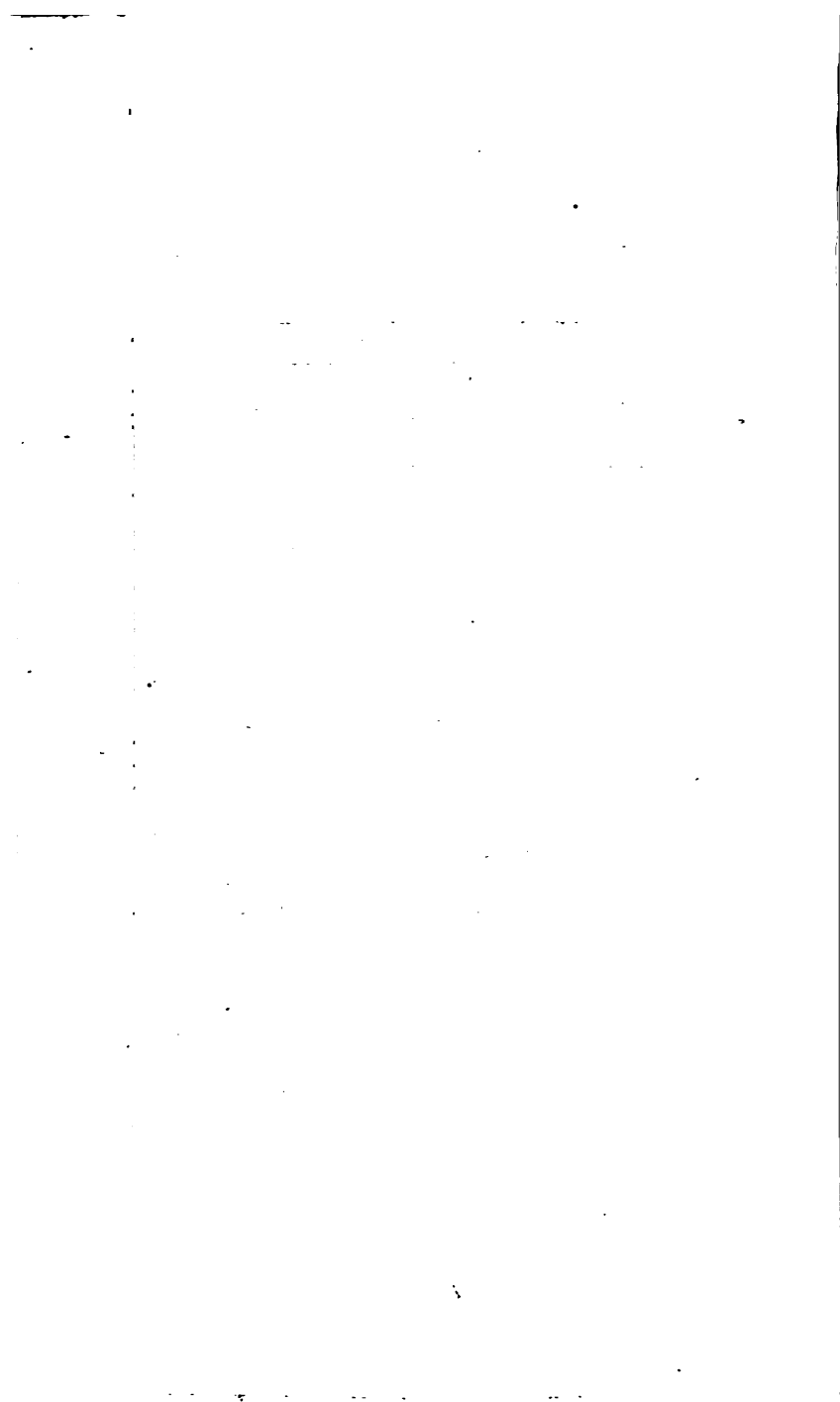
Branch	Trades- people, workmen, &c.	Non-com- missioned Officers.	Men.	Horses.
<b>Generals on active service</b>				
<b>Military administration</b>				
Staff of Quartermaster	24	.....	58	
On service detached from				
Town commandants	21			
Field secretary's staff	3			
Field commissariat dep	39			
Field paymaster's dep	74			
Chaplains	1,990	19,706	292,021	1,168
Upper military courts	1,111	4,153	47,999	42,051
Infantry and riflemen	663	1,695	19,747	
Cavalry	743	574	2,139	
Field artillery				
Garrison artillery	79	5	8	
Manufactory of fire-arm barrack at Pesth	1,665	1,409	24,144	13,467
Train	16	67	764	
Pontoniers and Boat dep	7	67	868	
Frontier cordons	37	293	5,590	
8 garrison battalions	8	140	695	12
1 corps miners	9	142	766	8
1 corps sappers	15	186	2,773	16
1 corps pioneers	2	3	59	
1 corps Hungarian cro	66			
9 houses of reception	15			
14 staff prisons	62	.....	25	
Hospital inspection and	190	55	695	
Sanitary arrangements	61			
Druggist's department	6	.....	180	
Engineers	136	112	2	
Fortifications	55			
Barrack department	1,118	447	4,590	
Navy				
Commission for inspect	80	333	1,256	1,988
Department for horse-b	18	3	31	
Veterinary colleges	80	136	1,228	4,881
Army studs	64	25	445	88
Administration of indeg	594	112	397	
Clothing, &c. commissi	1,200			
Branches for managing	35			
Inspectors of soldiers' b	322	2,241	55,660	39
Military colonist regim	13	178	2,350	
Colonist battalions in o	2,131	546	2,896	14
Civil management of th	37			
Prisons in fortresses	1			
Il Pizzighetone for con	123	23	17	
Regimental schools	34	.....	5	
Department for making				
	12,949	32,701	467,408	63,728
<b>Pensioners in the Milit</b>	607			
Do. of the Ordnan	8			
Do. of the Gunpow	46			
Do. of the Military	34			
Invalid houses	322	1,018	2,984	2
Army Pensioners	1,219	4,515	26,364	
Out-pensioners	623			
	15,808	38,234	496,756	63,730

1



# No. IV.

	Landry Benses.		Cost of Sanitary Arrange- ments.	Cost of the Army at Home and at Mayence in 1831.	Cost of the Troops employed on Foreign Service.	Total cost of the Army, exclusive of the Arrears up to 31st Oct. 1830.
	Florins.	Kr.	Florins.	Kr.	Florins.	Kr.
Genl.						
Milit.						
Infan.	9,125	5		1,255,569 22	11,481 47	1,267,051 40
Cava.	8,018	31		1,227,238 22	1,988 42	1,229,927 4
Field	6,465	47		13,656,694 4	231,870 37	13,888,564 42
Garr.	1,666	5		4,391,236 50	29,974 11	4,421,211 2
Mar.	697	38		1,648,042 39	4,031 8	1,652,073 47
Tras.	3,700	55		473,436 13		473,436 13
Min.	2,498	57		1,059,729 14		1,059,729 14
Fro.	2,665	45		5,170,611 20	3,483 47	5,174,095 7
Pon.	0,333	48		529,687 46	1,183 13	530,870 59
Nav.	88	58		343,429 4		343,429 4
Tras.	0,987	43		86,113 8		86,113 8
Inst.				1,131,132 14		1,131,132 14
Sar.				11,509 26		11,509 26
Dre.				79,640 51		79,640 51
Com.	5,721	49	346,030 37	408,037 38	27,069 12	435,106 51
Bul.			235,674 55	317,949 46		317,949 46
Bar.				169,779 8	186 25	169,965 33
Wo.				1,817,552 55		1,817,552 55
Co.				347,455 30		347,455 30
Do.				18,380 56		18,380 56
Ve.	1,010	30		13,234 43		13,234 43
Mil.	212	18		209,126 32		209,126 32
Ind.	1,815	14		7,543 7		7,543 7
Clo.	8,687	38		408,048 50		408,048 50
Br.	0,049	24		240,132 15		240,132 15
Co.	2,522	4		10,341,557 56		10,341,557 56
Mil.	209	29		20,586,408 58	736,853 19	21,323,262 17
Ad.	3,773	32	13,379 48	609,542 30		609,542 30
Mil.	5,986	52	11,682 22	2,642,540 46	49,772 46	2,692,313 33
Mil.	6,303	47		982,762 56		982,762 56
Ge.	562	30	5,181 12	34,479 49		34,479 49
Pe.	3,218	34		348,608 31		348,608 31
	3,705	49	21,838 24	413,019 57		413,019 57
				3,927,056 18		3,927,056 18
P4	0,028	48	633,787 26	74,907,990 18	1,097,895 11	76,005,885 30
To	1,313	16				
Co	1,342	5	633,787 26			
To	3,403	44	27,088 31			
	4,745	49	660,875 52			



## BY PRIVATES.

	ty h- ent (4 s' ce.	Beds.	Horses, reckon- ed at 10 years' dura- tion.	Firing and Candles.	Forage.	Regi- mentals and Equip- ments.	Arms and Ammu- nition.	Total cost.
<b>Infantry:—</b>	Gr.	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.
Grenadier .....	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 47	2 9	73 45
Fusilier and "Lan"	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 16	2 9	67 10
Of the Military F								
Fusilier on deta	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 53	2 9	67 33
Fusilier in the 1		...	...	...	...	1 55	2 9	4 21
Riflemen in di		...	...	...	...	1 55	3 55	6 6
Artillery in dit		...	...	...	...	1 55	2 58	5 12
Riflemen .....	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 54	3 32	78 34
<b>Cavalry:—</b>								
Cuirassier .....	2	3 2	16 0	3 11	108 29	12 45	3 21	202 46
Dragoon .....	2	3 2	12 40	3 11	108 29	12 40	3 13	209 9
Light-horse .....	2	3 2	10 33	3 11	108 29	12 36	3 39	207 24
Hussar .....	2	3 2	10 33	3 11	99 32	14 34	3 39	200 37
Szekler Hussar		...	...	...	...	3 25	3 13	6 59
Ditto with rifle		...	...	...	...	3 25	3 39	7 24
Lancer .....	2	3 2	10 33	3 11	99 32	14 50	2 28	199 27
<b>Artillery:—</b>								
Bombardiers	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	11 7	...	111 46
Fireworkers.	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 3	...	110 42
"	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 3	...	98 32
"	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 3	...	86 22
Upper cannon	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 0	...	96 44
Under cannon	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 0	...	72 24
Staff (garrison)	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 0	...	72 24
Artillery-train	2	3 2	16 0	3 11	126 21	13 27	...	232 5
Waggon-train	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 37	...	83 16
<b>Different corps:—</b>								
Miners .....	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 26	2 31	129 12
"	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 26	2 31	98 47
"	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 29	2 9	110 38
Sappers .....	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 29	2 9	86 18
"	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 10	2 9	92 27
Pioneers ...	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 10	2 9	74 12
"	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	12 5	2 9	126 27
Pontoniers..	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	12 5	2 9	102 7
Gunboatman (C		...	...	...	...	1 55	2 9	4 21
ding shoe-mone		...	...	...	...	1 55	2 58	5 12
Hungarian Cro	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 57	1 21	73 7
Garrison battal	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 14	1 16	66 14
Frontier cordo	2	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 4	1 8	66 15
<b>Navy:—</b>								
Sailors.—1st c	2	1 38	...	2 21	...	13 59	...	162 7
" 2nd	2	1 38	...	2 21	...	13 59	...	138 7
" 3rd	2	1 38	...	2 21	...	13 59	...	114 7
Marines .....	2	1 38	...	2 32	...	10 57	2 9	89 49
Marine artiller	2	1 38	...	2 32	...	12 5	...	125 18
"	2	1 38	...	2 32	...	12 5	...	88 48



## BY PRIVATES.

Brand	Beds.	Horses, reckoned at 10 years' dura- tion.	Firing and Candles.	Forage.	Regi- mentals and Equip- ments.	Arms and Ammu- nition.	Total cost.
Infantry:—	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.	Fl. Kr.
Grenadier .....	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 47	2 9	73 45
Fusilier and " Lan	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 16	2 9	67 10
Of the Military Fr							
Fusilier on deta	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 53	2 9	67 33
Fusilier in the n	...	...	...	...	1 55	2 9	4 21
Riflemen in dit	...	...	...	...	1 55	3 55	6 6
Artillery in ditt	...	...	...	...	1 55	2 58	5 12
Riflemen .....	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 54	3 32	78 34
Cavalry:—							
Cuirassier .....	3 2	16 0	3 11	108 29	12 45	3 21	202 46
Dragoon .....	3 2	12 40	3 11	108 29	12 40	3 13	209 9
Light-horse ....	3 2	10 33	3 11	108 29	12 36	3 39	207 24
Hussar .....	3 2	10 33	3 11	99 32	14 34	3 39	200 37
Szekler Hussar	...	...	...	...	3 25	3 13	6 59
Ditto with rifle	...	...	...	...	3 25	3 39	7 24
Lancer .....	3 2	10 33	3 11	99 32	14 50	2 28	199 27
Artillery:—							
Bombardiers	3 2	...	3 11	...	11 7	...	111 46
Fireworkers.—	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 3	...	110 42
"	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 3	...	98 32
"	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 3	...	86 22
"	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 0	...	96 44
Upper cannons	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 0	...	72 24
Under cannons	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 0	...	72 24
Staff (garrison)	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 0	...	72 24
Artillery-train.	3 2	16 0	3 11	126 21	13 27	...	232 5
Waggon-train	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 37	...	83 16
Different corps:—							
Miners.....	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 26	2 31	129 12
"	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 26	2 31	98 47
"	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 29	2 9	110 38
Sappers .....	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 29	2 9	86 18
"	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 10	2 9	92 27
Pioneers ...	3 2	...	3 11	...	10 10	2 9	74 12
"	3 2	...	3 11	...	12 5	2 9	126 27
Pontoniers..	3 2	...	3 11	...	12 5	2 9	102 7
Gunboatman (C	...	...	...	...	1 55	2 9	4 21
ding shoe-mone	...	...	...	...	1 55	2 58	5 12
Hungarian Cro	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 57	1 21	73 7
Garrison battal	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 14	1 16	66 14
Frontier cordon	3 2	...	3 11	...	9 4	1 8	66 15
Navy:—							
Sailors.—1st cl	1 38	...	2 21	...	13 59	...	162 7
" 2nd c	1 38	...	2 21	...	13 59	...	138 7
" 3rd c	1 38	...	2 21	...	13 59	...	114 7
Marines .....	1 38	...	2 32	...	10 57	2 9	89 49
Marine artillery	1 38	...	2 32	...	12 5	...	125 18
"	1 38	...	2 32	...	12 5	...	88 48



*In addition to the fixed annual pay and allowances, the Troops in the undermen-  
tioned provinces drew as extra allowance in the year 1837 the following  
sums for*

[illegible]





# No. VII.

	Accusations pending at the close of 1837.				Population, exclusive of the army, in 1837.	List of Criminal Courts at which the proceedings were carried on in 1837.
	Total.	In arrest.	At liberty.	Total.		
Lower Austria .....	1,581	460	53	513	1,328,793	Lower Austria ..... 210
Upper Austria .....	665	147	30	177	839,901	Upper Austria ..... 103
Styria .....	478	218	48	266	935,576	Styria..... 125
Carinthia .....	374	126	16	142	737,471	Carinthia and Carniola 7
Illyrian coast .....	281	94	19	113	458,403	Illyrian coast ..... 3
Tyrol .....	670	147	34	181	814,892	Tyrol ..... 19
Bohemia .....	2,575	1,003	243	1,246	4,001,925	Bohemia ..... 20
Moravia .....	1,080	350	58	408	2,074,246	Moravia and Silesia ... 10
Galicia .....	3,401	1,120	740	1,860	4,518,360	Galicia ..... 6
Dalmatia .....	574	385	40	425	373,479	Dalmatia ..... 4
Lombardy .....	1,886	589	40	629	2,460,079	Lombardy ..... 9
Venice .....	1,831	360	22	382	2,074,118	Venice ..... 8
	15,396	4,999	1,343	6,342	20,617,243	Total ... 528



## CRIMES FOR 1837.

	Maiming or other personal injury.	Murder and manslaughter.	Arson.	Calumny.	Polygamy.	Violation of sanitary regulations.	Aiding and abetting criminals.	Total.
...	10	9	4	1	1	...	1	1,311
...	35	22	6	1	...	...	3	1,910
...	3	8	6	1	...	...	1	188
...	11	9	7	...	...	...	3	617
...	11	13	5	2	...	...	6	208
...	25	27	5	...	...	...	4	474
...	8	20	3	...	...	...	1	102
...	14	34	4	1	...	...	3	251
...	5	15	3	...	...	...	...	83
...	17	16	2	...	...	...	2	255
...	14	15	1	...	...	...	1	125
...	41	15	8	3	...	...	4	510
...	37	46	23	4	...	...	12	858
...	104	83	22	3	...	...	13	2,500
...	16	21	16	...	...	...	1	328
...	39	44	1	1	2	...	1	836
...	66	85	49	1	...	10	11	1,062
...	116	118	79	4	2	86	12	2,462
...	119	114	118	2	1	20	8	1,076
...	166	66	236	7	1	69	9	1,499
...	250	114	13	1	...	...	15	1,803
...	167	40	9	3	...	...	9	1,514
1	289	346	228	11	2	30	42	5,341
3	985	588	393	24	5	155	78	14,631
4	1274	934	620	35	7	185	120	19,972

for 1837.

...	2	8	3	...	...	...	...	945
...	3	3	11	1	...	...	1	587
...	3	3	2	...	...	...	...	197
...	2	2	4	...	...	...	...	129
...	7	8	6	1	...	...	...	216
...	10	8	6	3	...	...	1	399
...	8	14	34	...	...	...	...	1,112
...	2	3	12	...	...	...	...	252
...	6	20	15	...	1	...	...	347
...	7	15	190	...	...	...	1	554
...	330	80	109	11	...	...	18	7,087
...	15	8	35	1	...	...	...	3,036
...	395	172	427	17	1	...	21	14,861

*Sentences of Death submitted for the Emperor's Confirmation in 1837.*

Forgery of public debentures ...	1
Assassination .....	4
Murder with robbery .....	2
Murder after lying in wait .....	2
Robbery and murder .....	2
Murder in the streets .....	1
Ordinary murder .....	5
Arson .....	1

Total.....18

*The above crimes took place in—*

Upper Austria .....	2
Styria, Illyria and Illyrian coast .....	5
Tyrol .....	2
Bohemia .....	3
Moravia and Silesia .....	2
Galicia .....	4
Dalmatia .....	0

Of the eighteen condemned, 14 were pardoned by the Emperor.

In Lombardy and Venice five convicts received sentence of death, which was commuted in four cases, during in the year 1837.



No. IX.

Courts at head	stein .....	36	21	57	10	15	32	...	47	1,633
manders-in-	presienstadt ..	257	53	310	62	3	245	...	248	9,517
5 Houses for	nigggrätt .....	23	4	27	5	1	21	...	22	957
Sappers' and	efstadt .....	76	13	89	12	2	75	...	77	2,793
17 Garrison a	nütz .....	86	18	104	20	...	84	...	84	2,636
59 Regiment	a .....	28	4	32	8	3	21	...	24	1,395
5 Field Artill	zighettone .....	164	42	206	39	...	167	...	167	7,651
1 Corps Bom	manova .....	74	14	88	14	...	74	...	74	2,671
8 Cuirassier	nomarittimo ..	97	17	114	18	...	96	...	96	18,568
6 Dragoon re	n .....	37	3	40	6	...	34	...	34	1,392
7 Light-Hors	horn .....	102	38	140	24	...	116	...	116	3,673
11 Hussar re	nkats .....	41	13	54	11	10	33	...	43	2,533
4 Lancer reg	ed .....	61	12	73	9	1	63	...	64	2,153
	meswar .....	132	19	151	27	...	93	31	124	3,832
	egg .....	116	34	150	27	...	123	...	123	3,436
	lsburg .....	19	8	27	6	...	21	...	21	792
MILITARY	erwardin .....	222	57	279	52	3	224	...	227	7,163
4 Commande	d .....	31	13	44	2	1	41	...	42	1,216
17 Infantry r	Gradisca .....	52	19	71	14	...	57	...	57	1,481
Gunboatme										
12 Military-c	Total.....	1654	402	2056	366	39	1620	31	1690	75,482



## S UNDER ARREST IN 1837.

Co.	Military Offences.											Grand Total.	
	Self-mutilation.	Insubordination.	Mutiny.	Neglect of Duty on Guard.	Opposition to Patrols.	Theft against the Government.	Theft against Comrades.	Extortion from peasants of the country or frontier.	Ill usage of persons in office and Officers.	Selling Arms or Uniform.	Desertion.		Total.
Com and	26	74	...	60	11	30	184	...	...	47	553	985	1,766
5 inv	...	7	...	1	2	1	2	...	...	9	...	22	41
Corps	...	2	...	...	...	...	2	...	...	...	2	6	10
17 ga	13	39	7	55	4	19	74	...	1	25	362	619	1,067
59 re	98	188	5	223	32	42	640	...	2	137	1,045	2,412	4,322
5 fie	...	11	...	5	2	6	33	...	...	21	8	86	182
Corps	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	...	...	...	...	3	10
8 reg	...	13	...	5	5	2	40	...	...	7	5	77	156
6 dit	3	9	...	2	3	...	21	...	...	4	11	53	134
7 dit	4	9	...	4	3	...	34	...	2	5	32	93	179
4 dit	2	32	1	21	15	11	96	...	5	27	142	352	749
4 dit	3	9	...	7	2	3	25	...	3	...	16	68	221
	149	393	13	383	79	114	1,154	...	13	282	2,196	4,776	8,837
4 Com	4	31	5	25	4	14	51	...	...	16	233	383	724
17 In	25	20	12	192	5	1	7	3	...	5	29	299	3,226
me	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	242
12 M	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	29	51	17	218	9	15	58	3	13	21	262	683	4,192
	178	444	30	601	88	129	1,212	3	13	303	2,458	5,459	13,029





the Military Frontier.)

generally.	Total.	Against the Honour of Individuals.	Against Morality								Offences against Health.
			by means of						generally.	Total.	
			Indecent Offences.	Adultery.	Invalid Marriage.	Begging.	Prohibited Games.	Intemperate Drunkenness.			
154	3,196	681	304	15	4	84	53	7	39	506	21
44	1,251	339	5	3	...	52	32	4	14	110	5
5	778	321	11	3	...	1	22	1	14	52	11
14	282	86	1	1	...	9	1	1	14	27	18
4	451	144	6	1	...	3	...	3	1	14	7
41	1,393	422	6	3	10	19	2	...	4	44	2
173	4,393	1,588	71	17	1	745	74	36	82	1,026	48
75	1,940	661	43	2	6	148	22	23	58	302	36
96	3,216	659	112	22	52	139	25	113	54	517	77
130	1,613	737	1	10	4	2	10	8	101	136	35
736	18,516	5,638	560	77	77	1,202	241	196	381	2,734	260
437	9,734	5,678	122	27	...	547	27	32	85	840	135
738	9,438	6,833	99	18	...	194	41	15	291	658	186
175	19,172	12,511	221	45	...	741	68	47	376	1,498	321
911	37,688	18,149	781	122	77	1,943	309	243	757	4,232	581
Summary.											
Offences against											
the State.	Public Ordinances and Institutions.	Abuse of Official Authority.	Property.	Honour.	Morals.	Health.	Life.	Bodily Security.	Total.		
3	543	5	3,196	681	506	21	345	1,042	6,372		
3	111	3	1,254	339	110	5	154	504	2,483		
8	97	4	778	321	52	11	150	333	1,754		
1	71	1	282	86	27	18	59	296	841		
4	116	1	451	144	14	7	43	296	1,072		
22	85	1	1,393	422	44	2	227	552	2,730		
17	381	5	4,393	1,588	1,026	48	424	1,850	9,737		
47	288	6	1,940	661	302	36	249	857	4,356		
4	489	19	3,216	659	517	77	331	3,691	9,046		
4	204	20	1,613	737	136	35	244	1,431	4,424		
139	85	65	18,516	5,638	2,734	260	2,226	10,852	42,815		
32	9	34	9,734	5,678	840	135	1,212	7,073	25,687		
30	9	34	9,438	6,833	658	186	1,207	4,022	22,982		
62		68	19,172	12,511	1,498	321	2,419	11,095	48,669		
201		133	37,688	18,149	4,232	581	4,645	21,947	91,484		



No. XII.

**STATEMENT OF THE RESULT OF CRIMINAL TRIALS  
IN TEN YEARS, from 1822 to 1831, from SPRINGER'S  
STATISTICS.**

Provinces.	Criminals condemned to					Acquit- ted.	Not Proven.	Escaped.	Died in Prison.
	Prison.			Death.					
	Under 10 years.	Above 10 years.	Life.	After Trial.	Courts Martial.				
Lower and Upper } Austria .....	14,205	110	8	29	...	3,292	2,482	78	175
Styria.....	3,036	40	4	5	...	607	726	49	56
Carinthia and Carniola.	1,498	39	3	4	...	120	398	9	36
Illyrian Coast.....	1,170	24	...	2	7	141	856	12	51
Tyrol.....	3,608	76	3	3	...	338	1,369	12	57
Bohemia .....	14,306	171	38	32	2	2,006	6,159	33	243
Moravia and Silesia.....	6,730	63	7	15	...	791	1,826	9	138
Galicja.....	15,154	289	11	24	55	1,125	8,887	720	835
Dalmatia.....	2,237	168	3	6	...	944	1,929	69	137
Lombardy.....	8,009	526	9	17	24	1,054	6,794	13	143
Venice.....	5,902	340	18	14	11	1,143	6,164	4	171
Total .....	75,855	1,846	104	151	99	11,561	37,590	1,008	2,042
Annual average .....	7,585	185	10	15	10	1,156	3,759	100	204
In 1835 .....	9,000	156	8	38	...	1,052	4,441	173	226
In 1837 .....	9,309	155	...	11	1	720	4,504	133	280



# HOUSES OF VOLUNTARY INDUSTRY.

Provinces and Places.	Persons Employed.		Voluntary Labourers.				Financial Statement.							
	Officers.	Servants.	Number 1st of January 1837.	In-crease	Dimi-nution	Number 31st De-cember 1837.	Receipts.			Expenditure.				
							For Ma-nufactures, &c.	Other Receipts.	Total.	Cost of Materials.	Paid for Labour.	Expenses of Manage-ment.		
in 1837.							Florins in Convention Money.							
Lower Austria :—Vienna .....	...	...	73	797	681	189	86	401	520	921	...	3,316	7,963	11,279
Tyrol :—Innsbruck .....	...	2	37	36	42	31	8	646	...	646	384	274	40	698
Botzen .....	...	4	99	1	...	100	96	4,038	1,200	5,238	...	4,038	1,200	5,238
Trient .....	...	...	9	13	10	12	10	433	...	433	...	433	404	837
Galicia :—Lemberg .....	...	1	14	12	12	14	17	3,219	...	3,219	1,308	976	1,055	3,389
Lombardy :—Milan .....	16	57	1,397	585	660	1,322	1,358	17,523	52,082	69,605	9,210	9,586	66,437	85,233
Monza .....	1	...	19	15	4	30	17	217	...	217	211	595	—	806
Brescia .....	4	12	141	2,259	2,183	217	192	15,767	10,113	25,880	10,255	8,680	7,555	26,490
Cremona and Casalmaggiore ..	7	1	296	597	286	607	605	15,521	14,484	30,005	9,211	16,290	3,458	28,959
Mantua .....	1	5	206	2,695	2,748	153	247	223	6,675	6,898	203	5,337	3,154	8,694
Bergamo .....	6	5	175	4,705	4,683	197	236	6,859	12,115	18,974	4,173	5,846	9,227	19,245
Como .....	2	6	51	68	30	89	100	290	3,489	3,779	73	2,267	1,599	3,939
Pavia .....	3	22	567	474	489	552	451	5,100	7,093	12,193	1,377	10,985	2,611	14,973
Lodi .....	3	5	168	1,484	1,394	258	224	8,163	4,925	13,088	4,376	10,428	2,081	16,885
Venice :—Venice .....	10	2	317	302	285	334	415	20,580	14,915	41,495	29,259	23,061	6,579	58,899
Verona .....	7	7	139	445	504	80	116	9,076	19,612	28,688	5,528	10,675	12,182	28,385
Total .....	61	129	3,708	14,488	14,011	4,185	4,178	114,056	147,223	261,279	75,627	112,787	125,545	313,959



## HOUSES OF FORCED LABOUR.

Provinces and Places.	Persons employed.		Sentenced to Hard Labour.				Financial Results.							
			Number of per- sons 1st January 1887.	In- crease	De- crease	Number 31st De- cember 1887.	Receipts.			Expenditure.				
	Offi- Ser- vants.	Annual Average of 1887.					For Manu- factures, &c.	Other Receipts.	Total.	For Ma- terials.	Paid to La- bourers.	Cost of Manage- ment.	Total.	
Florins of Convention Money.														
Lower Austria :—Vienna.....	9	12	307	300	566	37	160	9,682	48,165	57,847	7,192	15,092	12,314	34,598
Upper Austria :—Linz.....	3	6	70	164	136	98	92	2,283	15,752	18,035	4,946	6,981	7,306	19,233
Carinthia :—Klagenfurth.....	1	1	3	9	10	2	4	36	388	424	...	138	286	424
Illyrian coast :—Trieste .....	2	3	20	35	31	24	21	1,011	1,702	2,713	945	941	887	2,713
Tyrol :—Innsbruck .....	...	2	18	15	15	18	14	556	440	996	...	632	285	917
Schwatz .....	2	10	130	41	55	116	113	15,989	9,261	25,250	12,708	6,089	4,984	23,781
Bolzano .....	...	2	5	3	...	8	5	494	136	630	...	538	92	630
Trent .....	1	5	52	69	57	64	48	2,752	7,355	10,007	2,318	3,837	2,508	8,563
Bohemia :—Prague .....	4	9	158	55	60	153	154	14,508	18,091	32,599	13,067	10,050	4,394	27,511
Galicia :—Lemberg .....	1	9	130	744	754	120	126	305	13	318	...	3,772	1,783	5,555
Total .....	23	59	889	1435	1684	640	737	47,616	101,203	148,819	41,076	48,070	34,779	123,925









# No. XVI.

## CONVICTS IN THE HOUSES OF CORRECTION AT THE END OF 1837, SENTENCED TO IMPRISON- MENT.

Provinces and Places.	Under 1 year.	1 to 10 years.	10 to 20 years.	For life.	Total.
Lower Austria :—Vienna .....	60	444	5	...	509
Upper Austria :—Linz and Salzburg .....	47	133	1	...	181
Styria :—Grätz .....	...	122	...	...	122
Carinthia and Carniola :—Laibach .....	20	133	...	...	153
Illyrian coast :—Capo d'Istria and Gradisca .	...	264	171	4	439
At the criminal courts .....	33	...	...	...	33
Tyrol :—Innsbrück .....	22	308	2	...	332
At the criminal courts .....	88	38	1	...	127
Bohemia :—Prague .....	...	603	5	...	608
At the criminal courts .....	144	...	...	...	144
Moravia and Silesia :—Brünn and Spielberg	243	139	242	67	691
At the criminal courts	89	...	...	...	89
Galicia :—Lemberg .....	100	801	22	...	923
At the criminal courts.....	293	303	3	..	599
Dalmatia :—In the houses of correction, &c.	78	40	1	...	119
Lombardy :—Mantua and Milan .....	254	422	95	3	774
Venice :—Padua and Venice.....	...	776	170	8	954
At the criminal courts .....	79	...	...	...	79
Total .....	1550	4526	718	82	6876



Training and Boarding  
Schools.

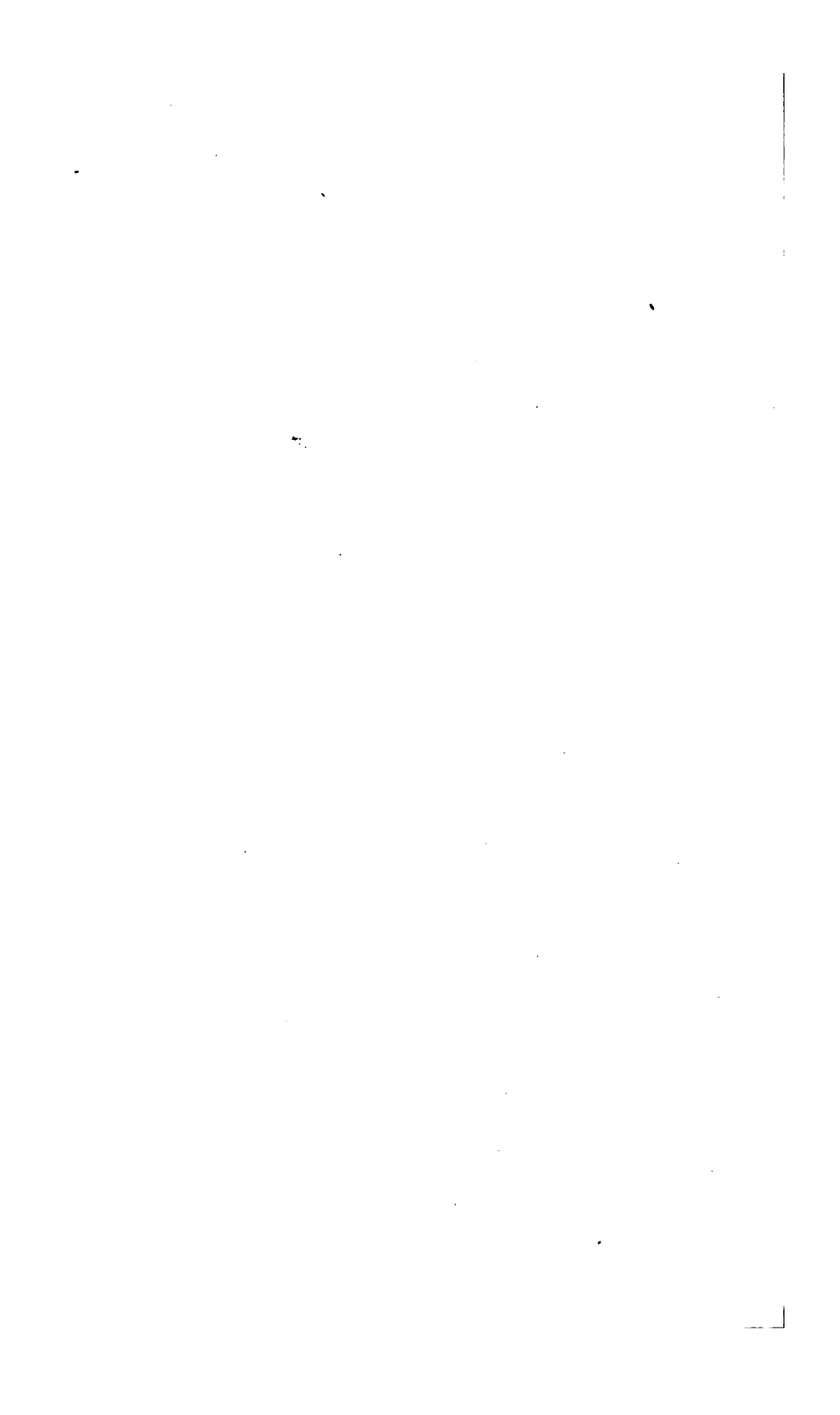
Provinces.	Schools for the People.										Of a General Nature.		For Divines.													
	Special Foundations and Private Seminaries.					Public Grammar Schools.					Common Preparatory and Girls' Schools.				Schools of Repetition.		Of a General Nature.		For Divines.							
	Universities.		Lycees and Colleges of Divinity and Arts.		For Boys.		For Girls.		No.		Scholars.		No. of Schools.		Children who are fit for School.		Children who go to School.		Scholars.		No. of Establishments.		Scholars.		No. of Establishments.	
	No.	Scholars.	No.	Scholars.	No.	Scholars.	No.	Scholars.	No.	Scholars.	No.	Scholars.	No. of Schools.	Scholars.	No. of Schools.	Scholars.	No. of Schools.	Scholars.	No. of Establishments.	Scholars.	No. of Establishments.	Scholars.	No. of Establishments.			
Lower Austria .....	1	4,592	2	138	4	1,680	...	...	8	2,119	1,096	158,744	155,794	1,017	57,324	6	376	5	290							
Upper Austria .....	...	...	3	447	4	67	...	37	3	724	626	92,768	87,754	606	40,519	4	88	2	131							
Styria .....	1	828	2	25	1	41	...	...	4	820	642	93,894	76,833	566	34,964	1	19	1	95							
Carinthia and Carniola .....	...	...	2	389	...	...	...	...	4	750	363	86,542	28,416	394	16,517	1	29	2	156							
Illyrian coast .....	...	...	...	1	...	54	1	12	3	324	113	82,324	9,838	85	3,171	...	...	1	85							
Tyrol .....	1	313	1	127	...	...	...	...	8	1,451	1,612	107,999	108,171	1,168	45,729	1	18	2	174							
Bohemia .....	1	4,027	3	376	2	554	...	...	22	5,133	3,437	527,665	493,229	3,308	228,608	3	197	4	328							
Moravia and Silesia .....	1	564	2	272	3	317	...	...	11	2,729	1,866	290,340	271,426	1,855	177,052	3	52	2	120							
Galicia .....	1	1,321	7	672	2	73	1	15	13	3,661	1,845	518,023	67,958	595	29,080	2	29	6	441							
Dalmatia .....	...	...	2	90	...	...	1	12	3	338	51	17,978	3,624	...	.....	1	33	1	14							
Total .....	6	11,645	25	2,578	17	2,756	5	76	79	18,049	11,671	1,976,207	1,303,043	9,594	632,964	22	841	26	1,834							
Lombardy .....	1	1,288	8	1,359	4	99	3	167	19	4,862	3,466	337,368	178,207	259	5,098	43	3,080	9	590							
Venice .....	1	1,357	4	433	2	507	2	260	8	2,002	1,617	248,810	81,296	...	.....	20	1,570	12	326							
Together ...	2	2,645	12	1,792	6	606	5	427	27	6,864	5,083	586,178	259,503	259	5,098	63	4,650	21	916							
Total .....	8	14,290	37	4,370	23	3,362	10	503	106	24,913	16,754	2,562,365	1,562,546	9,853	638,062	85	5,491	47	2,750							
Hungary .....	1	...	16	...	4	...	...	...	80	...	...	...	...	...	.....	2	...	24	1,200							
Transylvania .....	...	...	4	509	...	...	...	...	23	3,491	1,556	66,818	50,394	30	720	12	1,149	2	147							
Military Frontier .....	...	...	...	...	8	406	...	...	2	311	1,106	125,998	62,205	770	20,697	1	52	2	50							
Grand Total...	9	14,290	57	4,879	35	3,768	10	503	211	28,715	19,416	2,755,901	1,675,145	10,653	659,479	100	6,692	75	4,147							













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